Role conflict, coping strategies and female entrepreneurial success in sub-Saharan Africa

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Role Conflict, Coping Strategies and Female Entrepreneurial Success in Sub-Saharan Africa

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Chapter One: Introduction

1.1. Motivation

Female entrepreneurship is in the ascendancy, if one considers the growing proportion of women who choose to start-up and manage their own businesses (Menon and Sarkar, 2012; Raman et al., 2013). For instance, as measured by the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor's (GEM) Total Entrepreneurial Activity (TEA)[1], female entrepreneurship rates have been rising across the world in recent decades - and is the highest in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) (GEM,2016).

The rise in female entrepreneurship has been accompanied by greater financial independence and autonomy of women from traditional roles, the postponement of marriage, a fall in fertility, and significant improvements in women's education levels (Brush and Cooper,2012). While the role that entrepreneurship has contributed to this progress has to be acknowledged, it is however still the case, especially in SSA, that many women are entrepreneurs because of necessity (Minniti and Naudé, 2010; GEM, 2016).

In fact, there is a broader gender gap as far as entrepreneurship is concerned beyond the motivation for starting up a business. For instance, more women than men reported starting a business out of necessity; more men than women have established business; and fewer men than women exit from their business (GEM, 2016). According to GEM (2015), the rate of women-to-men in entrepreneurial activity depends on culture and traditions; the degree to which women are required to contribute to a household's financial income; the existence of employment opportunities for women; and gender-sensitive policies and practices.

Moreover, female entrepreneurs more often than men face role conflict (Jennings and Brush, 2013), which requires various coping mechanisms, and which may impact on the success of the business. Role conflict occurs when an individual

[1] TEA is defined as the share of adults in the population of 18 to 64 years old who are either actively involved in starting a new business or in managing a business less than 42 months old (Reynolds et al., 2002, p. 5). Hence, this definition incorporates both nascent entrepreneurs and owner-managers of new firms.

involves in multiple roles and compliance with one of the roles impedes the accomplishment of another (Teh, et al. 2009). For example, Sullivan and Meek (2012) established that women with children tend to show a greater preference for family-related factors than men when at work. Thus, when women are at work, they are still mothers and may worry about, plan for and think about their children, with conflicting implications for their productivity (Medina and Magnuson, 2009).

In developing countries, such as those in SSA for example, this role conflict may be accentuated by the fact that women most often face more significant obstacles in starting and running a business than men, and in addition face multiple roles as they still play an important role within the household. The complexity of the business challenges they face demands much of their attention and ingenuity, but societal expectations and their own preferences may reduce the effective attention that they can pay to their business (De Vita, Mari, and Poggesi, 2014, Scott, 2014 Hallward-Driemeier, 2013). The consequences for their business' success and survival can be detrimental: surveys have found that female entrepreneurs in Kenya cited the challenge of balancing multiple roles as the main reason for their higher rate of exit (Munyua, 2009),

Role conflict, and its implications for the success of female entrepreneurs in SSA, are relatively neglected topics in the scholarly literature. This gap will be outlined below and serves as the basic motivation for this thesis.

1.2 Background

The focus of this thesis is on women in SSA who start and manage their own business. Therefore, as quoted in Rauch and Frese (2000:6) Hisrich's (1990) definition of entrepreneurship is applicable: "….. *the process of creating something different with value by devoting the necessary time and effort, assuming the accompanying financial, psychic, and social risks, and receiving the resulting rewards of monetary and personal satisfaction*" (p. 209).

Female entrepreneurship, like entrepreneurship in general, involves opportunity identification and resource gathering to start-up and grow a business

(Shaila, 2012). Entrepreneurship, as an occupational choice, can contribute to an individual's welfare by providing income and subjective wellbeing and can ultimately contribute to the development of a country or region (Naudé, 2011; Naudé et al., 2014). As such, the gender gaps in entrepreneurship, as noted in the previous section, can be limiting personal and national development.

Given that role conflict may contribute towards these gender gaps, understanding more about the nature of such role conflicts and how women cope with them, is important to harness the development potential of entrepreneurship. In the remainder of this subsection, this development potential of entrepreneurship will be elaborated, and the potential that the role conflict women entrepreneurs experience in limiting this underscored.

Entrepreneurship can in principle contribute to a country's economic development (Langevang, Gough, Yankson, Owusu, and Osei, 2015; Minniti, 2010; Ramadani, Gërguri, Dana, and Tašaminova, 2013). It can provide economic growth and employment (Singh and Belwal, 2008). As a result, most countries today have policies to promote entrepreneurship (Brixiová and Kangoye, 2016).

Herein, women entrepreneurship is often given special emphasis ((Langevang et al., 2015; Minniti, 2010). However, the motive for the emphasis differs between developed and developing countries (Scott, 2014). For the former, attention to the women entrepreneurship is part of a general push to stimulate growth since women lag behind men in both starting businesses and achieving growth, whereas for the developing countries, the core emphasis in international discourse shifts strongly toward women's entrepreneurship as a poverty alleviation strategy. Hence, women entrepreneurship in the latter is seen as having particularly beneficial impacts more broadly on development (Langevang et al., 2015; Minniti, 2010).

The social and economic mobility that entrepreneurship can afford women can be an instrument to address gender inequality, improve economic efficiency, grow small and medium enterprises and promote the well-being of children[1] (Estrin and Mickiewicz, 2011; Minniti and Naude, 2010; Singh and Belwal, 2008; N. Zahra, 2013).

If female entrepreneurship matters for development, research on female entrepreneurs has paramount importance (Minniti, 2010).

Research on female entrepreneurship accumulated rapidly since the second half of the 1970s (Jennings and Brush, 2013). Most of this research has focused on individual characteristics of women entrepreneurs, women's motivation for starting their own businesses, their management style, and the constraints that they face (Lee Siew Kim and Seow Ling, 2001; Sang-Suk and Denslow, 2004). Most of the initial studies were concerned with female entrepreneurs in advanced countries (Mekonnen and Castino, 2017).

A key finding from this initial literature was that women were traditionally underrepresented in entrepreneurship. It established that fewer women than men start businesses (Jennings and Brush, 2013). Many reasons have been identified for this, including that on average women have historically lacked in human, social and financial capital in comparison to men; that they have faced discrimination in labor and financial markets; and that potential business support institutions and programs are gender-biased. Since men also face obstacles in becoming entrepreneurs, the question has been posted as to why women may experience more serious binding constraints in these areas as compared to men.

One neglected answer could be that it is because women experience more role conflict than men (Jennings and McDougald, 2007; McGowan, Redeker, Cooper, and Greenan, 2012; Shelton, 2006 and Jennings and Brush, 2013). In the difficult conditions that women face in doing business, this role conflict can exact a particularly negative toll. Especially in developing countries, women face high opportunity cost for turning attention away from pressing matters to seek or perceive new opportunities (Minniti and Naudé, 2010). In the SSA context specifically, high fertility rates, societal perceptions, domestic violence, and lack of economic rights result in female entrepreneurs too often facing almost insurmountable challenges to start and expand a business (De Vita, Mari, and Poggesi, 2014, Scott, and 2014 Hallward-Driemeier, 2013). Women in SSA moreover also have high workload arising from the cultural practices, which put restrictions on their behavior (Nziku and Struthers, 2017).

Additionally, the socio-cultural context demand of women to value family and social roles more than entrepreneurial roles (Weldeleul, 2009).

Most societies in SSA traditionally expect of women to focus on the day-to-day care for household members, and of men to be the main public representative and breadwinner (McDade and Spring, 2005). Role conflict is thus a potentially significant concern for both wage-employed and self-employed women (Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer, and King, 2002). Evidence that shows that most women in SSA are involved in economic activities without any corresponding decrease in domestic roles (e.g. Adisa, et al. 2016) lends extra weight to this concern.

For example, in Ethiopia women's socially acceptable roles would in the past, and to some extent also at the time of writing, generally be limited to domestic and care responsibilities (Blewal and Singh,2008, Hundera, 2014). When they do start their own business, they would tend to do so after marriage (Zewde and Associates, 2002), or "hide" their business in the informal sector (Ratten, 2016). Inevitably this means that their businesses are based around their home (Hundera,2014), with the challenge to separate family roles from business roles (Gudeta and van Engen, 2017).

Focusing on socially expected roles can prevent female entrepreneurs from being able to fully engage their businesses. Munyua (2009) for instance found that women entrepreneurs in Kenya cited the challenge of balancing multiple roles as the main reason for their higher rate of exit. Similarly, balancing multiple roles reported as one of the main reasons for the failure and limited growth of women-owned businesses in Ethiopia (Gudeta and van Engen, 2017). Jennings and McDougald (2007) argue that women entrepreneurs, who experience role conflict, are more likely to use coping strategies which can constrain their business growth as compared to men entrepreneurs.

Coping strategies are particularly relevant to women entrepreneurs in SSA where lack of infrastructure, inappropriate or missing policies, and high poverty levels can make coping more challenging. GEM (2018) reveals that SSA countries have the least supportive conditions for entrepreneurship. These factors can complicate the coping capacity of women entrepreneurs in SSA and affect their success.

In addition, role conflict has a broader concept than what work-family conflict literature commonly discusses. Role conflict is derived from role theory, which considers the individual's everyday activities to follow socially defined categories (Teh, Yong, Arumugam, and Ooi, 2009). Each social category (e.g. mother, entrepreneur) has expectations, norms, and behavior that individuals are expected to fulfill (Danna, 2007). If not, it can result in social punishment (Taminiau and Heusinkveld, 2017).

The very essence of role conflict is the need to simultaneously meet social role expectations in two or more roles in terms of duties, norms and behaviors (Floyd and Lane, 2000; Teh, Yong, Arumugam, and Ooi, 2009). For example, women who are successful as leaders might be expected to portray a feminine character to be likable (Rudman, et al.,2012).

Gender-stereotypical expectations will influence perception and value toward men and women differently for similar behavior (Ellemers, 2017). Eagly et al. (1992) found that women who portray a male-stereotypic assertive and directive leadership style were assessed more negatively than men who used the exact same style. Studies also show that women often face social punishment for entering a job previously prescribed for men (Rudman, MossRacusin, Phelan, and Nauts, 2012; Haines, Deaux, and Lofaro,2016).

Social role expectation in this thesis refers gender stereotypes as they portray the attributes or behavior that society ascribes to women. Society often expects women to be communal—that is, friendly, warm, unselfish, sociable, interdependent, family-focused, and relationship-oriented (Eisenchlas, 2013). These attributes, however, seem to be incompatible with the roles associated with entrepreneurs such as risk-taking, competitive, bold, commitment to venture (Langevang et al., 2015; Rauch, Wiklund, Lumpkin, and Frese, 2009).

Therefore, social role expectations can contribute to role conflict in women, who follow an occupation that traditionally may be associated with a male role, such as entrepreneurship (Mekonnen and Castino, 2017). Such gender stereotyping is widely prevalent in SSA where most societies still value culturally accepted behavior of females such as submissiveness, subservience, and supportiveness (Kitching and

Woldie, 2004). Gender stereotyping can more adversely affect women than men (Ellemers, 2017) it is more complex in a patriarchal society, such as found in most of SSA (Rehman and Roomi, 2012). In strongly patriarchal societies, women have no control over assets or household income and very limited decision-making powers, hence, a minor deviation from the norm can lead to greater social cost.

Studies of role conflict of women in either wage employment or entrepreneurship have so far focused mainly on the work and family aspect of the role conflict. As far as can be discerned, no study has yet considered the impact of social role expectations, and specifically gender stereotypes, as a factor in role conflict and the coping strategies with this. Gender role stereotypes are especially important in the context of developing regions such as SSA.

Thus, the role conflict that women in regions such as SSA, experience can be a potentially significant determinant of the gender gap in entrepreneurship, and an important reason for limiting the value of entrepreneurship as an engine of personal and societal growth and development.

1.3. Research gap and research questions

The literature on female entrepreneurship often focuses on the context of advanced countries, neglecting female entrepreneurship in developing countries (De Vita et al., 2014; Minniti and Naudé, 2010). This limits understanding of how role conflict affects the success of female entrepreneurship in SSA because context-specific socio-economic, culture and institutions have a key role in determining women's involvement in entrepreneurial activities, success, and failure (De Vita, Mari, and Poggesi, 2014; Mekonnen and Castino, 2017). Even where there are similarities in terms of factors hampering entrepreneurial success across the world, each continent needs to have its own strategy to promote entrepreneurship in view of the peculiar social context (Mersha, Sriram, and Hailu, 2010).

As was concluded in the previous section, studies of role conflict of women in either wage employment or entrepreneurship have so far focused mainly on the work and family aspect of the role conflict. As far as can be discerned, no study has yet

considered the impact of social role expectations, and specifically gender stereotypes, as a factor in role conflict and the coping strategies with this. Gender role stereotypes are especially important in the context of developing regions such as SSA.

This study aims to contribute to filling both gaps by exploring the role conflict experiences and coping strategies of women entrepreneurs and effect on entrepreneurial success in SSA.

The research question to be answered in this thesis is:

How do role conflict and coping strategies influence the success of female entrepreneurs in Sub-Saharan Africa ?

The specific research questions are :

- *How do female entrepreneurs experience and cope with role conflict in SSA context?*
- *How does the choice of coping strategy differ for different stages of a business?*
- *How do a woman entrepreneur's personal resources moderate the relationship between the stage of business and the strategies they use for coping with role conflict?*
- *How does the level of role conflict influence strategies that female entrepreneurs use to cope?*
- *How do strategies that female entrepreneurs use to cope with the role conflict influence entrepreneurial success?*

1.4.Country Context

The empirical research for the dissertation was conducted in Ethiopia, a landlocked country located in the horn of Africa. The country is culturally and ethnically diverse with more than 80 ethnic groups having their own culture and language. The total population is about 100 million, and this makes the country one of the most populated in Africa, ranking second after Nigeria (CSA, 2014). About half of the population are women.

Like that of most SSA countries, Ethiopia is considered as having a collective national cultural dimension (Hofstede, 1980). The family structure in the country involves extended-family and broader community, which go beyond the nuclear family (Acquaah, 2016). Examples of the institutions in the broader community are the community-based voluntary associations, which are ubiquitous throughout the country, such as 'Iqqub' 'iddirs' and 'mahabers'. All the associations' work is based on 'reciprocity and trust': the person who is supported in the event of a difficulty or in a case of a cheerful event is expected to do the same for other members.

For example, 'iddir' is an indigenous voluntary mutual help association; an informal financial and social institution (Teshome, et al.,2014). It provides social welfare services to its members either in cash or in kind in the event of difficulties (e.g. funerals) as well as entertainment (e.g. wedding ceremonies). One of the activities as a member of 'idir', mainly for women, is serving hundreds to thousands of guests, who come to pay their respect and comfort to the bereaved family during the first seven days of mourning after death (Grisaru, Witztum, and Malkinson,2008). Such community-based roles may require entrepreneurs in Ethiopia to close their business during the work hours, thus taking time away from business operations which is, ultimately, affecting their success (Mersha, Sriram and Hailu,2010). Although it puts significant demand on persons, participation in an indigenous association such as 'Idir' also strengthens social ties and sources of business for entrepreneurs in the country. Thus, these social associations and networks with their peculiar roles and demands may pose unique challenges for women entrepreneurs in Ethiopia in their efforts to cope with role conflict, on top of what is covered in the role conflict and coping literature.

1.4. 1.Female entrepreneurship in Ethiopia

The urban employment to population ratio is significantly higher for men (63.1%) than for women (43.4%) (CSA, 2014). Women are over-represented in the urban low-paying informal sector and have a higher unemployment rate (CSA, 2014). This forces the

majority of women in Ethiopia to consider self-employment as a way of generating income and survival (Abebe, 2014).

According to the GEM (2012), on average 47% of those who start a business in a given year in Ethiopia are women. Ninety percent of the women entrepreneurs are active in the consumer retail and service sectors, the highest rate in the SSA region outside of Angola and Uganda (GEM, 2012). This may be because services in consumer sectors are linked to women's domestic roles and help them to integrate household chores with the business. Moreover, GEM reports show that women entrepreneurs in SSA countries such as Ethiopia are driven by a necessity to survive.

The idea that the engagement of women entrepreneurs in Ethiopia is driven by necessity was challenged by Tesfaye and Kroon (2014), who argue that women entrepreneurs in Ethiopia are motivated by both opportunity and necessity factors, which are depending on age, educational backgrounds, socialization and learning experiences, family backgrounds and religious beliefs. Women, who are involved in business out of necessity, are characterized by having low employment opportunity, inadequate experience in the labor market, and low family income (Tesfaye and Kroon, 2014). This group of women is mainly involved in informal microenterprises related to petty trading, such as street vending, food processing, and other general low growth businesses.

On average, half of the start-up businesses in Ethiopia are businesses owned by women (GEM,2012). Evidence shows that women decide more quickly to start business as compared to men but face difficulties to expand their business to the next higher level in the country (World Bank, 2015).

According to Bekele and Worku (2013), women business owners in Ethiopia are 2.52 times more likely to exit from business in comparison with male businesses owners. No empirical evidence exists on the reason for exit among women entrepreneurs in Ethiopia. It can be argued though, that given the current status of unemployment in the country, women are less likely to exit from their business because of economic growth. It is more likely that most of the voluntary exit is associated with the increase of demand in the domestic roles. For instance, when single

women marry or when the number of dependents in the family increases because of birth or the presence of sick persons or elderly, domestic responsibilities for women increase. At the same time, associated with marriage the social role, women have to live up to more expectations. Therefore, the challenge to manage workload may more strongly influence the voluntarily exit among women entrepreneurs in Ethiopia than issues of economic growth.

Regarding the performance, businesses owned by women are less likely to create jobs for others in the country (GEM, 2012). This may be because women entrepreneurs often involve in businesses, which are extensions of their household roles, such as the service sector. The potential for growth and employment opportunities from these businesses is usually very low (Desta, 2010). Findings also show that business owned by women in Ethiopia generate less sales revenue and less profit as compared to those owned by men (Abebe 2014).

The entrepreneurial ability of women in Ethiopia suffers as a result of lack of education and work experience (Belwal and Singh, 2007; Bekele and Worku, 2013; Abebe, 2014).

Another constraint to women's entrepreneurial activities in is gender role expectation (Bekele and Worku, 2013; Mekonnen and Castino, 2017). For example, the socio-cultural factors disproportionate the distribution of domestic responsibilities and are burdening women entrepreneurs to fully be involved in business activities. The remainder of this thesis is devoted to providing more evidence to the extent to which this is an obstacle and how women cope with these.

1.5. Thesis outline

This thesis consists of six chapters. Except for Chapter 1 and 6, all chapters in this thesis were written as separate publications. Some have been published and some are under review for possible publication. As a result, a certain repetition exists across the chapters in relation to the description of role conflict, coping strategies and entrepreneurial success. Each chapter nevertheless deals with a distinct research question.

Chapter two answers the research question: *How do female entrepreneurs experience and cope with role conflict?* This question is answered by first surveying the literature on role conflict, social role theory, business stage approach, and coping strategies. Secondly, the chapter reports on an own survey that collected data from 20 female business owners in the textile sector of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. Based on this survey, case studies were written to explain the sources, types, and intensity of role conflict as these female entrepreneurs experience it across different stages of business development. The results indicate that sources of role conflict include family, business (work), social role expectations, and personal factors.

Chapter three deals with the research question: *How can role conflict between Social Role Expectations (SRE) and Entrepreneurial Role Demands (ERD) be measured?* The chapter answers this question by first proposing 27 items or indicators based on a literature review. These indicators where then included in a questionnaire that was pre-tested before it was used to collect data from 408 women entrepreneurs in Addis Ababa. Statistical analysis shows that the scales used adequately captured two dimensions of SRE and ERD conflict: SRE-to-ERD conflict and ERD-to-SRE conflict. By measuring and validating the conflict between SREs and ERDs, this chapter's findings suggest that the standard scales for measuring work and family conflict, which tend to focus solely on the work and family context, cannot adequately account for the experiences of role conflict among women entrepreneurs in SSA countries.

Chapter four asks two related questions: *How does the choice of coping strategy differ for different stages of a business?* and *How do a woman entrepreneur's personal resources moderate the relationship between the stage of business and the strategies they use for coping with role conflict?* To answer these questions, use was made of a literature survey and empirical study. The latter consisted of an own survey of 307 women business owners in Ethiopia. This was supported by the 20 in-depth interviews that were reported in the second chapter. A multivariate analysis of variance revealed that reactive role behavior is the most preferred and prioritizing entrepreneurial roles is the least preferred types of coping strategies at all stages of business. Structural equation modeling for moderation established that

compared to nascent and new business owners, established business owners more likely use structural redefinition such as negotiation, seeking social support and hiring outside supports as their coping strategies. If the women entrepreneurs have to prioritize between their roles due to the role conflict, nascent and new business owners more often prioritize family and social role; yet, established business owners prioritize entrepreneurial roles. However, the degree to which these business owners differ in their coping strategies is reduced with a high level of personal resources

In chapter five two further research questions were answered: *How does the level of role conflict influence strategies that female entrepreneurs use to cope? and How do strategies that female entrepreneurs use to cope with the role conflict influence entrepreneurial success?* As in previous chapters, both a literature survey and own empirical survey were used. In the latter regard, a survey of 204 women business owners from Ethiopia was conducted to examine the relationship between role conflict, coping strategies and perceived financial and non-financial success. Using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) it was found that female entrepreneurs respond to higher levels of role conflict by either involving others and/or reacting to all roles. Under higher or very intense levels of role conflict, they cope by prioritizing family and social roles, but to the detriment of their financial success. Under relatively low or less intensive levels of role conflict, women prioritize their entrepreneurial roles; this affects financial success positively but non-financial success negatively. Interventions that focus on enhancing social skill and time management skill would likely improve both financial and non-financial success of female entrepreneurs.

In chapter six the findings from chapters two to five are summarized and the key findings enumerated. The limitations and implications of these findings for role conflict, coping strategy, women entrepreneurship, and the general entrepreneurship literature, as well as the implications for practice are stressed.

Figure 1 provides a graphical representation of how each chapter interrelates and Table 1.1 summarizes the purpose and key methods of each chapter.

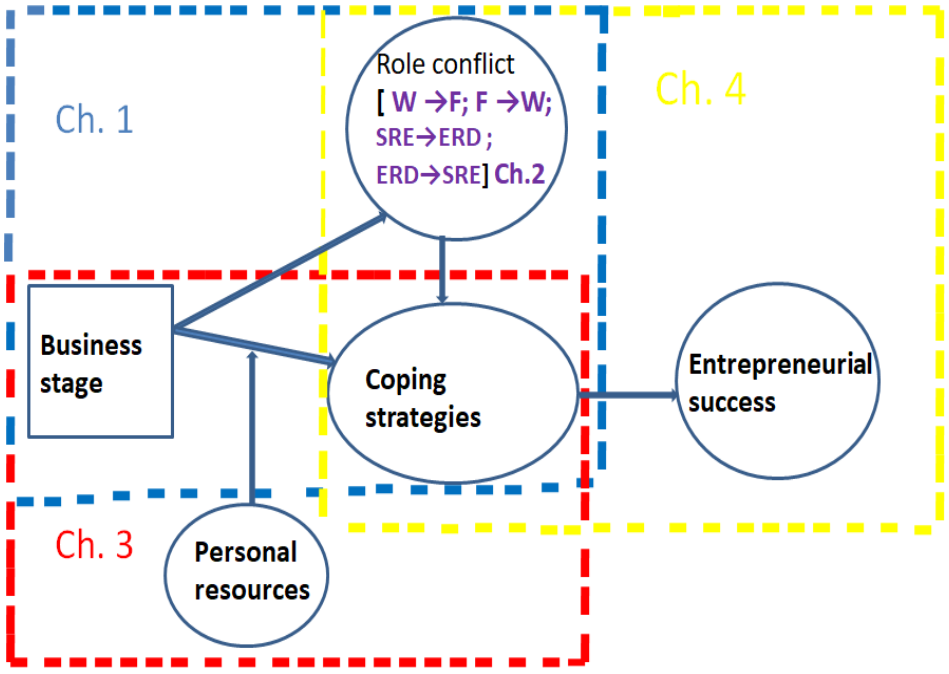


Figure 1.1: A graphical representation of the dissertations' chapters

Table 1.1. Overview of chapters and Data summary

Specific research questions	Chapters	Data
How do female entrepreneurs experience and cope with role conflict?	Chapter2	In-depth interviews with 20 women entrepreneurs in the textile sector, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. Collected in August 2016
What are the measures for Social Role Expectations (SREs) and Entrepreneurial Role Demands (ERDs) conflict among female business owners in Sub-Saharan Africa?	Chapter3	Measurement study: (1) interview data from chapter two, the 20 women entrepreneurs;(2) Cross-sectional survey with a structured interview, 408 women entrepreneurs from different sectors in Ethiopia. Measurement Validation: Cross-sectional survey with structured interview 307 women entrepreneurs in Ethiopia. Procedure: Profile data along with Social Role expectation and Entrepreneurial role demands conflict measures were collected between September and November 2016. From the same respondents, data on work-family conflict and entrepreneurial success were collected from December 2016 to January 2017.
What are the strategies for coping with role conflict among female business owners in SSA? How do the strategies vary across stages of business? How do personal resources moderate the relationship between business stage and strategies for coping with role conflict?	Chapter4	(1) interview data from chapter two, the 20 women entrepreneurs (2) a cross-sectional survey with a structured interview among 307 women entrepreneurs. Procedure: Profile (venture profile for 2016 and personal profile), data on coping strategies and role conflict was collected between February and May 2017. From the same respondent's data on personal resources were collected from July to August 2017. Data Used in this chapter: profile, coping strategies and personal resources
How does the level of role conflict influence strategies that female entrepreneurs use to cope? How do strategies that female entrepreneurs use to cope with the role conflict influence entrepreneurial success?	Chapter5	Procedure: data that was collected in the 4th chapter on venture profile, role conflict, and coping strategies. Additional new data from the same respondents on entrepreneurial success and venture performance were collected between August and October 2017. Final data used: a survey of 204 women

Chapter 2

How do Female Entrepreneurs Experience and Cope with Role Conflict in Sub-Saharan Africa? A Case Study from Ethiopia[2]

[2] This chapter was reviewed as "excellent" in the category of Africa-based early career scholars by the *European Academy of Management Early Career Colloquium* in Morocco, March 5-8, 2017 . A paper based on the chapter was also accepted for publication in the *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business*.

2.1. Introduction

Women-owned businesses tend to perform less well on average than male-owned businesses (Jennings and Brush, 2013). Specifically, they tend to be less profitable, less resilient and grow less strongly on average (Alsos, Isaksen, and Ljunggren, 2006).

Why is this the case? A large body of literature has dealt with this question. Amongst the reasons identified are that women face more difficulty to obtain finance to start and grow a business; that they lack education, skills and experience, and are less motivated to grow their businesses (DeMartino and Barbato, 2003) ; that women are less bold, more risk-averse, and less aggressive (Alsos et al., 2006; Baughn, Chua, and Neupert, 2006; Grimm, Gubert, Koriko, Lay, and Nord-man, 2013; Shinnar, Giacomin, and Janssen, 2012; World Bank, 2016); and that businesses owned by women tend to be concentrated in areas of low-profit potential: customer-oriented, retail, and service sectors (Baughn et al., 2006; Robb and Watson, 2012). It has also been found that female entrepreneurship may be hampered by formal and informal institutions (Sullivan and Meek, 2012; Welter and Smallbone, 2008). Often, the entrepreneurial ecosystems in developing countries do not provide sufficient support women entrepreneurs.

A few scholars (e.g. Jennings and McDougald, 2007; Shelton, 2006) have argued that another, somewhat neglected reason for the relative underperformance of female-owned businesses could women experiencing more ***role conflict*** than men. Role conflict is experienced when individuals are unable to fulfill their responsibilities or are unable to balance work, family, friends, relations and other social responsibilities. For example, compared to men, women often postpone involvement in business in order to balance work-family life (Ratten, 2016). Work-life balance is achieved when individuals can meet their commitment and or responsibilities in the work, family and other non-work domains (Delecta, 2011) without or with minimum experience of role conflict (Greenhaus, 2002). Shelton (2006) has argued that effectively managing work-life balance is an important condition for entrepreneurial success.

Women in SSA potentially experience role conflict because they typically assume three roles in society—fulfilling domestic, economic, and social duties—unlike men, who mostly fulfill an economic role (Chant, 2008; Moser, 1993; Turner and Fouracre, 1995). However, this issue has not been well addressed in the literature dealing with female entrepreneurship in SSA.[6] To the best of our knowledge, there has not been a single study on role conflict and coping strategies among women entrepreneurs in SSA.

In this light, the purpose of this chapter is to answers the research question: *How do female entrepreneurs experience and cope with role conflict?* This question is answered by first surveying the literature on role conflict, social role theory, business stage approach, and coping strategies. Secondly, the chapter reports on an own survey that collected data from 20 female business owners in the textile sector of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

The chapter is structured as follows. First, the relevant literature on the role conflict, coping strategies is discussed. Then an empirical study including research questions, method, analysis and finding is presented.

2.2. Relevant Literature

In this section, the existent literature on the concept of role conflict, its sources, and types is reviewed.

2.2.1. Role conflict

Kahn et al. (1964) defined role conflict as the "*simultaneous occurrence of two or more pressures such that compliance with one would make compliance with the other more difficult*." Role conflict theory is entrenched in role theory and derived from scarcity theory (Michel et al., 2009).

Role theory recognizes that an individual has multiple statuses, with multiple roles within each status (Thompson, Hickey, and Thompson, 2016).

Scarcity theory recognizes that an individual has a limited amount of resources, such as time and energy. There is competition among the multiple roles for the

individual's limited resources (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985); thus fulfilling one role occurs at the expense of others.

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) argue that any feature of a role that influences an individual's time involvement, strain, or behavior within a particular role, creates a conflict between that role and another one.

2.2.1.1. Sources of role conflict

The two main sources of role conflict discussed in the literature are work and family context. The family context includes household time demands, role expectations, and family responsibilities and is positively associated with role conflict (e.g. Carr and Hmieleski, 2015; Jennings and McDougald, 2007; Kreiner, 2006; Martinengo, Jacob, Hill, 2010).

In the work context, one of the factors in paid employment that can exacerbate role conflict is the lack of an autonomous, flexible working environment (e.g. König and Cesinger, 2015; Reynolds and Renzulli, 2005). Meanwhile, flexible work environments create their own difficulties in terms of having to manage the boundaries between roles (König and Cesinger, 2015) and can similarly lead to role conflict. For example, while self-employment creates the opportunity to work from home, it also introduces the difficulty of distinguishing between work and family spaces (Clark, 2000). Flexible work situations also encourage individuals to work during off hours and weekends, which means they are connected to work all the time (Dijkhuizen, Van Veldhoven, and Schalk, 2014; Perrons, 2003). For example, Parasur-aman and Simmers (2001) and König and Cesinger (2015) found that self-employed individuals work long hours and experience higher levels of role conflict than paid employees. Another work environment that can enhance role conflict is customer-oriented retail business, with its less flexible schedule (e.g. Jennings and McDougald, 2007; Reynolds and Renzulli, 2005).

Since social role expectations influence individuals' behaviors in their community (Eagly and Wood, 20130, these can be a potential source of role conflict. Social role expectations refer to the privileges, duties, obligations, behaviors of

individuals in their social position (Sarbin and Allen, 1968). Expectations of social roles often assign different roles and/ or responsibilities to women and men: domestic for women and career-related roles for men (Wood and Eagly, 2013).

The gender stereotyping aspect of social roles shapes how men and women behave in their domains, e.g. as women versus men in business (Rosenbusch, et al., 2009). Gender stereotypes are a commonly shared belief around behaviors attributed to men and women in society and put excessive influence on how individuals think, behave and are perceived (Balachandra, et al.,2013).

In social role theory men and women behaving as per the stereotype is linked with the social roles they possess. For example, common stereotypes linked to women, are being communal, such as friendly, unselfish, concerned with others, and emotionally expressive (Eagly and Wood, 1991). Thus, the notion that women's social roles are not customarily those of leader and entrepreneur, as well as the stereotype of 'how women should be', may negatively impact women entrepreneurs (Balachandra, et al., 2013).

In addition, gender stereotypical belief has been theorized in entrepreneurship, whereby entrepreneurship is seen as a male domain in terms of practice and character (Wasti and Sikdar, 2009). Moreover, entrepreneurial behavior associated with success are often described in masculine features (Ahl, 2006), e.g. 'competitiveness', 'aggressiveness', 'innovativeness'(Ahl and Mor1ow,2012)

Gender role stereotyping puts pressure on women to behave as per socially recognized ways: if not, they may face social sanction (Eagly and Wood, 1991). As a result, women entrepreneurs face the challenge of fulfilling the gender stereotypic expectation, while doing a job which is believed to demand masculine characteristics, of which entrepreneurship is an example.

Social sanctions for not acting according to gender stereotype can lead to a weakening of women's social rights and access to resources (Hechavarria and Ingram 2016).

2.2.1.2. Types of role conflict

Three types of role conflict are discussed in the literature: time-based, behavior-based, and strain-based (e.g. Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, and Brinley, 2005; and König and Cesinger, 2015). Time-based conflict arises from the limited amount of time a party has, to handle all its role demands. Behavior-based conflict occurs when the behavior required in one status is unsuited to that required for another status. For example, while a formal, bureaucratic style of communication is expected in the working environment, it may lead to raised eyebrows at home (Reynolds and Renzulli, 2005). Strain-based conflict happens, when the stress from one status spills over into another status. For example, the physical and mental involvement required at work may make a person less attentive once they are home (Reynolds and Renzulli, 2005).

2.2.2. Coping strategies

Coping strategies refer to an individual's efforts at the cognitive, behavioral, and emotional levels to manage internal and external demands (Hsieh and Eggers, 2010; Mäkelä and Suutari, 2011). These are the actions individuals take to reduce or control the consequences of demanding situations beyond their capacity and resources (Clark et al., 2014).

Scholars have examined coping strategies in various ways (Clark et al., 2014). Some (e.g. Hall, 1972; Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2007) have examined how individuals cope with role conflict. Others (e.g. Rotondo and Kincaid, 2008) examined how individuals cope with stress. In this chapter the focus is on coping with role conflict models.

The model for coping with role conflict is consists of three elements: "structural role redefinition", "personal role redefinition", and "reactive role behavior" (Hall, 1972).

Structural role redefinition aims to eliminate or reduce role conflict at the source by altering the role expectations, thus reducing, reallocating, and rescheduling the role expectations. This may or may not be in mutual agreement with the role sender (the people communicating the role expectations). Some studies that considered

structural role redefinition are Shelton (2006) and Jennings and Mc-Dougald (2007), Ahmad and Xavier, 2010; Becker and Moen, 1999; Moen and Yu, 2000; and Shelton, 2006).

Personal role redefinition amounts to altering one's own perception of the role demands and expectations without altering the external conflict (e.g. other expectations of individual roles). For example, an individual might decide to devote his or her full attention to a given role when he or she is in that role, which generally involves the segmentation of roles. Unlike structural role redefinition, this strategy involves internal accommodation and does not alter the source of conflict.

Scholars have also examined strategies that are in line with personal role redefinition (e.g. Ashforth, Kreiner, and Fugate, 2000; Clark, 2000; Edwards and Rothbard, 2000).These include segmentation, compensation, and boundary management.

Segmentation is the act of actively separating different roles into different domains (work and family) by consciously controlling thoughts, feelings, and behaviors related to the out-of-role status (e.g. a person not considering a role in the family while in business ownership role).

Compensation is the act of becoming excessively involved in one realm to compensate for the displeasure in other realms. For instance, in seeking a return from entrepreneurial activities, a person may reallocate his/her time and attention from other roles to entrepreneurial activities (Edwards and Rothbard, 2000).

Boundary management involves developing and mapping borders between different statuses (e.g. creating a boundary between work and family roles) (Clark, 2000).

Reactive role behavior is an attempt to improve the quality of the role performance so that one can better satisfy all of the role demands. It is the ideal strategy when there is no associated attempt to change others' expectations of the roles, or one's own. The implicit assumption of role behavior coping is that role demands are unchangeable, and the person's main task is to find ways to meet them. This also involves a passive or reactive orientation toward one's roles.

Örtqvist, Drnovsek, and Wincent (2007) introduced two dimensions of coping strategies including *role redefinition* (structural versus personal role redefinitions) and *role behavior* (reactive versus passive role behavior). This model for coping with role conflict is similar to Hall (1972)'s except that Örtqvist et al. (2007)'s consider passive role behavior as a separate category.

According to the two dimensions model, role redefinition varies from negotiating role expectations with stakeholders/role senders to changing one's level of role salience. Role behavior, meanwhile, varies from remaining passive to being reactive and involved in working as long or hard as needed to meet all expectations.

The degree to which individuals apply a particular coping strategy are is influenced by various factors (Drnovsek, Örtqvist, and Wincent, 2010). These can be classified as family context, work context, individual factors, and the nature and level of conflict. Family context includes family support and family income (Jennings and McDougald, 2007). The work context includes the nature of the work and human resources and finance.

According to Ashforth et al. (2000), when a work context is flexible and permeable and there is a similarity between roles, it may be possible to integrate roles. Drnovsek et al. (2010) found that work environments with a high start-up capital requirement trigger more problem-based coping than low start-up capital environments. This is because entrepreneurs take a high risk when they invest a huge amount of capital and give more emphasis to their venture to minimize loss.

Individual-level factors that determine the degree to which individuals apply a particular coping strategy include gender, age, education, personality, and role salience (Carr and Hmieleski, 2015; Clark, 2000; Jennings and McDougald, 2007; Kreiner, 2006; Wincent and Örtqvist, 2009). For instance, Jennings and McDougald (2007) propose that women business owners often do not use "growth facilitating" strategies compared to men business owners. Psychological capital also strengthens coping capacity (Ruderman et al. ,2002) . Akanji (2012) indicates the importance of hardiness as a personal trait, which involves coping by controlling oneself. Jennings and McDougald (2007) found that a high level of role conflict is likely to lead to coping

efforts that will constrain business growth. Rotondo and Kincaid (2008) found that the effectiveness of coping strategies depends on the source of the role conflicts.

2.3. Empirical study

In this section a gap in the literature surveyed in the previous section is identified, a research question formulated and the results from an empirical survey aimed at answering this question presented.

2.3.1. Gap and Research question

The literature has treated the constructs of role conflict and coping strategies as static. Entrepreneurship however is a dynamic process. All entrepreneurs go through distinctive business stages, each stage with its own characteristics and challenges (Scott and Bruce, 1987). Although highly criticized, the business stage approach is the most frequently used theoretical approach to understanding entrepreneurial business growth (Levie and Lichtenstein, 2010). For example, a stage approach to business development helps to effectively identify difficulties and corresponding solutions to enterprises (Lewis and Churchill, 1983).

Entrepreneurs' attachment to their company also differs at various stages, like the attachment between parent and child at different ages (Cardon, Zietsma, Saparito, Matherne, and Davis, 2005). Besides, entrepreneurs encounter different challenges at various stages that require different strategies in order to establish and run a successful venture. Moreover, social role theory assumes that role related expectations are subject to change, which would demand different ways of coping (Wood and Eagly, 2013).

Therefore, the experience by women entrepreneurs of role conflict, and their coping strategies, need to be understood in dynamic entrepreneurial settings. This then leads to the overarching research question that the rest of this chapter will seek to answer how do women entrepreneurs in the SSA context experience and cope with role conflict based on the business stage? More specifically:

What is the nature (sources, type, and intensity) of the role conflict experienced by women entrepreneurs?

How does the nature (sources, type, and intensity) of the role conflict differ based on the business stage?

Which coping strategies do women entrepreneurs in SSA use to manage role conflict?

How does the choice of coping strategy differ, depending on the business stage?

2.3.2. Research Context

In order to constrain variations from other factors and to make a comparison across business stages, women entrepreneurs from a similar sector were purposively selected to be surveyed (Eisenhardt, 1989). This generated a group of study participants comprising women entrepreneurs in the textile sector in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia who were college graduates and growth-oriented.[3]

Why the textile sector? One of the main reasons is that this line of industry is the sector of one of the top five fastest-growing garment manufacturing in Ethiopia and ranked as the third largest manufacturing industry in the country, next to food and leather processing. Secondly, most of the merchandise from the textile sector in Ethiopia, such as clothes, shoes, jewelry, and household items, are custom-made, which consumes time and energy in terms of meeting the specifications and expectations of each customer. Thus, as women try to meet such business expectations along with their other roles, we can expect a higher level of role conflict. Moreover, most clients of this sector order traditional clothes for special events such as a weddings, and they are less tolerant to changes to the schedule they originally fixed with the female entrepreneurs. This can put a lot of pressure on the women entrepreneurs in this sector, and hence, may exacerbate the role conflict.

[3] This is the city in Ethiopia where the majority of women entrepreneurs operate (Stevenson and St-Onge, 2005) and is thus highly representative.
"*They are more educated and have the capacity to position their firms in growing product lines, especially market niches. They show an entrepreneurial attitude (managerial competencies) in terms of designing and planning of the business, detecting potential suppliers of inputs or buyers and sometimes integrating a value chain as subcontractors.*" (Gómez, 2008)

Despite these challenges, most of the successful women entrepreneurs in the country are found in this sector. Hence, understanding the role of conflict and the experience and coping strategies of these female entrepreneurs can provide a good guide for initiatives that will be aimed at promoting women's entrepreneurship in Ethiopia.

2.3.3. Methods

A multiple case study approach was adopted to explore the experience of role conflict and coping strategies of women entrepreneurs at different stages of their business. The case study approach is applicable under four conditions: (1) when a study aims to answer "how" and "why" questions; (2) when the behavior examined in the study cannot be manipulated; (3) when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clear; and (4) when the research aims to cover contextual conditions because the researcher believes context is relevant to the phenomenon under study(Baxter and Jack, 2008; Dana and Dana, 2005).

Role conflict and coping strategies in entrepreneurial processes are the main focus of this study. There has to date been a lack of evidence on role conflict and coping strategies among women entrepreneurs in SSA. Furthermore, the experience of role conflict and coping strategies in entrepreneurial settings can be best understood by examining the environment in which they have evolved. The use of the case study thus enables us to make an in-depth investigation (Dana and Dana, 2005) of the experience of role conflict and coping strategies among women entrepreneurs at different stages of business.

2.3.3.1. Sources of Data

To compile a list of potential participants, the leaders of two business associations were first contacted, the Ethiopian Chapter of the African Women Entrepreneurship Program (AWEP) and the Ethiopian Fashion Designers Association (EFDA). At the first meeting with the leaders, the research project was explained to them. The leaders then indicated their willingness to collaborate but could not give the profiles of their members without the members' consent. So, the purpose of the research was explained

to its members during a training, August 11–13, 2016, and a subsequent breakfast meeting on August 27, 2016. From the informal discussions with members during the tea breaks and lunchtime at the training and meeting, it was realized that most of the members were in both associations. So, the network created through AWEP to access members for the study was followed.

Based on the profile and business status of each member, 30 potential respondents were identified. However, most were in the start-up and growth stages; only five were in the maturity stage. Hence, it was decided to select five entrepreneurs from each stage using convenient sampling techniques. The network that had been created by participating in the two meetings facilitated obtaining the consent of all the selected respondents.

In order to build a model of role conflict and coping strategies that is applicable across business stages, respondents from every stage of business (seed, start-up, growth, and maturity stages) were purposefully selected from a population of women entrepreneurs in the textile sector in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. Theoretical sampling (Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007) was used to identify the most relevant categories of respondents based on the stages of business.

Assessing the profile of ventures owned by each of the 30 women entrepreneurs brought out that it was convenient to categorize them based on the four-stage model from Cardon et al. (2005): Seed, start-up, growth, and maturity. Accordingly, twenty women entrepreneurs, five from each stage of business were selected. The reasoning for this is that having multiple cases at each stage (category) allows replication of the findings within each stage (category) (Eisenhardt, 1989).

The following procedures were followed to categorize respondents to each stage of business.

Seed stage: The main activities of entrepreneurs at this stage include finding a business site, accessing finance, expanding personal and business networks, licensing (legalization), and developing marketing plans (Cardon et al., 2005). Adding to this, the GEM defines a nascent entrepreneur as a person actively involved in starting a new enterprise. Following these criteria, the five respondents who were categorized under

seed stage have identified the type and site for their business, are in the process of creating networks and licensing their business.

Start-up stage: According to Minitti and Naudé (2010), firms at the start-up stage in developing countries are largely MSMEs (micro, small, and medium enterprises), employing fewer than five people. In addition, the GEM defines a young business as being a business less than 42 months old. Following these criteria, the five respondents, who were categorized under the start-up stage, hire 3 to 4 employees; have been in business from 2 to 3 years, and their business considered as small-scale.[4]

Growth stage: The growth stage of a business is characterized by a growth in sales, employees, and market share or resource acquisition and the venture becoming more formalized (DeTienne, 2010). The GEM also defines entrepreneurship at this level as someone who is the owner or manager of a business that is older than 42 months. Following these criteria, the five respondents who were categorized under the growth stage have reported growth in sales, size and have been in business for more than 5 years.

Maturity stage: One of the basic characteristics of a mature business is that the company develops its own institutionalized practices that are separate from the entrepreneur (Cardon et al., 2005). In addition, the company hires managers other than the founder. Furthermore, a mature firm has independent businesses separate from its core firm. Accordingly, all respondents are serial entrepreneurs with more than one independent business who have hired managers and have institutionalized practices.

The description of respondents and their business profile is provided in table 2.1.

2.3.3. 2.The Interview Process

The interview protocol was developed based on the theoretical framework and feedback of management, sociology and gender scholars from Haramaya University, Ethiopia.

[4] According to Ethiopia's Federal Micro and Small Enterprise Development Agency (FeMSEDA), a small-scale enterprise is an enterprise that has 2–10 employees.

The role of scholars from Haramaya University is limited to providing suggestion on the work of principal investigator (the Ph.D. Candidate) who is also a staff member of the university. In order to ensure that the study would remain within a reasonable scope (Baxter and Jack, 2008), the experiences of role conflict and coping strategies of the respondents were limited to a single year.

The interview guide focused essentially on questions related to weekday and weekend routines, work and family related challenges, social roles and its challenges and coping strategies. In the beginning, two pilot interviews were conducted, transcribed and analyzed. Accordingly, the interview questions were modified to improve clarity and to include some more probing questions that were found to be pertinent.

A total of 20 in-depth interviews, five from each stage of business, were conducted. All the interviews were face-to-face. Most of the interviews (15) took place at the respondents' place of work (office); two were in their home; one was inside a car, and two were in a cafeteria. The interview location was based on what was convenient for the respondent. No family members, friends or others related to the women entrepreneurs were present at the place of the interviews.

All the interviews were conducted using local language, Amharic, then transcribed in English on the same day.

On average, each interview lasted two-and-a-half hours. Before the interview started, each respondent was asked for their consent to record the interview, and all but two agreed. For those two respondents, notes were taken during the interview with the aid of research assistants. Moreover, all the recorded interviews were supported by field notes and memos.

The interviews progressed as follows. The first narrative question was backstory: family history, education, family status and structure followed by questions on the history of the business: why and how they start. By asking these questions the women entrepreneurs could tell their family story, describe how they socialized, why and how they started the business. In the next questions they were asked to describe the normal working days and weekend routines. These questions allowed them to

describe their workloads, compare activities on weekdays and weekends and identify challenges. Subsequently, they were asked about their feeling regarding how their role as entrepreneurs impacts their family, their social life also how their family and social life, in turn, impacts their business. With these questions, the women entrepreneurs could describe the role conflict they experience in their work, family and social life. The women were also asked about their involvement in social and professional networks. Accordingly, they could describe the benefits of being involved in social networks, the challenges of meeting the social obligations, and its influence on their business.

Once the women entrepreneurs sufficiently described and answered each group of questions, the researcher asked follow-up questions on how they manage the challenges of family roles, business roles, and other social role expectations. This was aimed at identifying coping strategies.

The main characteristic of this case study research is the use of multiple data sources to enhance data credibility (Yin, 2013.). Accordingly, during the field visits, researchers made informal observations as to the location of the company, the nature of the business, the roles and responsibilities of the respondents, the owner-employee(s) relationship, and the customer base.

Table 2.1: Description of Respondents and Their Business at the Four Stages of Business Studied

Participant and age	Family status	Education	Stage of business	Household size	Average working hours per week	Age of youngest child	Years in business (yrs.)	Number of employees
1 (28)	Married	BA	Seed	3	45	1	1.5	None
2 (30)	Married	BA	Seed	5	40	4	1	None
3 (32)	Married	MA	Seed	5	48	3	0.5	None
4 (36)	Single	BA	Seed	4	42	7	0.5	None
5 (34)	Married	BA	Seed	6	45	3	0.2	None
6 (34)	Divorced	MA	Start-up	3	60	7	3	4 (3 are women)
7 (37)	Single	BA	Start-up	12	72	3	3	3 (2 are women)
8 (32)	Married	Diploma	Start-up	5	58	4	2	4 (2 are women)
9 (35)	Married	BA	Start-up	5	60	7	3	4 (3 are women)
10 (29)	Married	Diploma	Start-up	4	60	4	3	4 (3 are women)
11 (35)	Married	MA	Growth	6	55	5	7	7 (5 are women)
12 (37)	Married	BA	Growth	5	60	4	8	30 (18 are women)
13 (38)	Married	BA	Growth	4	58	14	6	20 (9 are women)
14 (37)	Married	Diploma	Growth	5	60	12	5	5 (2 are women)
15 (36)	Single	Diploma	Growth	4	45	18	6	5 (4 are women)
16 (58)	Married	Diploma	Maturity	6	60	28	21	42 (18 are women); 5/6 women managers; > 100 subcontractors
17 (43)	Married	BA	Maturity	6	50	17	24	30 (13 are women); 2/4 women managers
18 (36)	Married	BA	Maturity	7	45	12	12	100 (25 are women); 3/5 women managers
19 (49)	Married	Diploma	Maturity	8	50	20	25	45 (20 are women); 2/5 women managers
20 (45)	Married	BA	Maturity	4	60	19	23	65 (31 are women); 3/6 women managers

2.3.3.3. Data Processing and Analysis

The data from the interviews was transcribed on the day of interview, to limit any omissions. The researcher (i.e. the Ph.D. candidate) would produce seven to eight pages of transcribed data for each interview. The transcribed data were then encoded, and themes were developed for the analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

Dana and Dumez (2015) indicate that qualitative research needs to go back and forth between specified theories in terms of mechanisms and hypothetical stories specified with the help of relatively independent coding. Accordingly, they suggest that coding must be done from the existing theory and data, to address the risk of circularity associated with qualitative research. Following the suggestion, coding was done based on the prior codes, which were derived from the theoretical framework—the role conflict theory, social role theory and coping model—and the emergent codes from ideas that arose during the interview process and transcript review.

The coding was performed by four people, three of them invited only at the coding stage to ensure the reliability of the findings and data, as well as to support the Ph.D. candidate. Accordingly, everyone independently coded the transcripts and came up with a long list of different codes that are identified across the transcripts, and then came together to reach a consensus on the codes. Following this, different codes were combined into potential themes.

This was followed by a description of each code and an explanation, including the identification and confirmation of the pattern of relationship that was identified. Data analysis was also done during the data collection, which enabled the researcher to respond back and forth.

To address issues of equifinality in qualitative research, Dana and Dumez (2015) suggest focusing on plausible rival hypotheses and making systematic use of counter-factual reasoning. Accordingly, in our discussion, we provided explanations from the empirical data, existing theories and previous findings for the patterns of relationship identified in the study.

The interpreted data was then shared with the five respondents, one from each stage of business, to clarify the interpretations and add any new perspectives, which did occur in some cases. For example, three of the respondents added additional perspectives about the importance of self-confidence for entrepreneurs, even though women are socialized to be submissive in Ethiopia, creating a behavior-based conflict. In addition, two individuals from Haramaya University, Ethiopia were invited to prop up the Ph.D. candidate's thinking in the research process to minimize the potential bias.

2.3.4 Results

The different typologies such as work, family, social role expectations, and coping strategies, were developed based on theoretical models and contextual factors. For example, work and family as sources of role conflict is widely recognized in the literature. Social role theory shows that social role expectations contribute to role conflict, which can be more pertinent for women entrepreneurs in the study (see 1.3.2, 1.4.1, 1.4.2 and 2.4). For the categorization of the coping strategies, the combinations of models from Hall (1972) and Örtqvist, Drnovsek, andWincent (2007) were considered.

What are sources of the role conflict experienced by women entrepreneurs in SSA was the first research question. This was analyzed using the result from the case study as presented section 2.6.1 and sub-sections (2.6.1.1. to 2.6.1.2) below.

2.3.4.1. Sources of role conflict

Sources of role conflict include the domain or social position and the expectations flowing from these, where role demands arise and create conflict, with women's roles as business owners, with their obligation in social networks, and family roles.

All the respondents had experienced the difficulties of fulfilling role demands in different parts of their lives, including business, family, and social expectations, as well as on a personal level. Ethiopian women are expected to take on a threefold role fulfilling family, social, and economic duties. In their families, women are responsible for all household chores and family care; otherwise, they are labeled "selfish" and/or

"a bad mother." Women are also expected to socialize and to behave according to socially accepted female norms to gain acceptance. For example, one of our respondents said, "*If you cannot socialize yourself simply in our community, some people tend to perceive [you] as [a] bad woman and hardly accept you in anything*."

Meanwhile, to be successful in business, entrepreneurs need to look for opportunities, become involved in business networks, attract and maintain customers and suppliers, and manage and expand their ventures. The women entrepreneurs try to meet the demands of all these various roles—being "a good woman, mother and wife" as well as a successful businessperson they experience role conflict. The sources of role conflict among women entrepreneurs can be grouped under four categories: social role expectations, business environment (work context), family context, and personal.

2.3.4.1.1. Social Role Expectations

Items categorized under social role expectation were based on the definition given in section 2.4.: it includes privileges, duties, and obligation, behaviors that the society in Ethiopia customarily believe as appropriate for women. Accordingly, it was identified that most respondents (85%) articulated issues related to social role expectations as the main sources of constraints in meeting their role demands. The responses indicated that societal definitions of women's roles and behavior are often in conflict with the roles and behavior expected in business. These are outlined below.

Feminine characteristics: Most of the respondents (55%) mentioned that the society expects them to have to have feminine characteristics, such as showing concern for others and being demure, sensitive, helpful, and nurturing. But these societal definitions of women's behavior often conflict directly with the kind of behavior expected of a businessperson. For example, as one of our respondents explained, "Our society expects women to be shy and humble, but in business, we need to be bold and assertive."

Representing family in informal social affairs: Ethiopian women are generally expected to represent the family at social events and actively socialize. In line with this, 45% of the respondents talked about the challenge of having to choose between

spending time with their friends, relatives, and neighbors or conducting business. The following quotes from several respondents exemplify this:

> *"People expect women to take part in social [events] such as funerals and weddings. Unlike the men, women have no excuse in this regard; even if . . . both of us have work."; "Women are expected to socialize ourselves with the neighbors and relatives to get accepted within the community."; "My family in-laws believe my husband is busier than me. Sometimes, I am forced to visit [them when] it clashes with my other schedules."*

Societal definition of women's roles: Regardless of women's roles and status outside the home, most of the routine domestic and caring tasks are reserved for them. These tasks are time-consuming and demand their physical presence. On the other hand, entrepreneurial activities require time and exposure to create and maintain business networks. Hence, most (65%) of the women stated that they faced challenges in terms of choosing between domestic duties and business responsibilities. For instance, one of the respondents discussed an experience she had during the Ethiopian holiday of Timket (Epiphany):

> *My neighbor looked at me (pretending as if she were making fun) and said, "The mood for holiday is good when a woman is in the house." It was not fun for me. I started feeling guilty, was confused, and wanted to go home. But I took credit to produce in bulk hoping that there would be high revenue during Timket (Epiphany). [Respondent who had started her business two years earlier]*

Women are expected to prove themselves: Gorman and Kmec (2007) reported that even when women have the same status and related responsibilities as men, the women tend to think they need to work harder in their jobs. Similarly, in the current study, most of the women's responses indicated that they felt they needed to work longer and harder to prove themselves to the people around them, in order to gain support and acceptance. Consider these quotes from various respondents: "*If I fail, it will be stereotyped to all women.*"; "*I have to work hard and prove myself to get support from my family and friends, and [to] have access to loans and [be] respected*

in my community."; "*At the beginning, it was challenging to convince people. Now, things are getting better because I have proved myself.*"

Faith traditions: This relates to expectations as to how one is supposed to behave, based on faith traditions. The responses show that some women consider behaviors necessary for their business dealings to be in conflict with their religious values. Hence, the women often find it difficult to choose between meeting the demands of their faith and behaving like an entrepreneur.

Consider this response: "*It is difficult to make the people from the same faith be proud of my work and at the same time get the return I deserve from the business.*"

In addition, for some women, their religious obligations include expectations to influence others to join their religion. But there is a customary perception among many Ethiopian people that business people are "deceptive." As a result, some respondents indicated that it was challenging to fulfill their religious obligations, while also conducting business. An example is: "*I want to oblige the biblical order and tell the biblical truth to others. But I [have] found [it] difficult [to get] . . . people [to] take me seriously because of the belief that businesspersons and politicians never tell the truth.*"

Social networks and its obligations: This includes an informal network within the community that women participate in, as well as formal business associations. Participation in these social networks is both worthwhile and gives obligations.

Most of the respondents mentioned that they excessively are involved in community-based social networks, which they considered rewarding, but not without obligations. The valuable side as described by the respondents, is that it provides recognition, sources of social support, and resources for their business (e.g. access to market and credit). However, they mentioned that the obligation demands time and resources of the entrepreneurs. For example, one of the respondents said *"... in our culture women are expected to attend the funeral and comfort the grieving family at their house after the funeral up to 3 or 5 days even more..... as you know, funerals also usually take place on the working days demanding closing the business.*"

Some of the respondents also mentioned their social obligations with regard to providing financial support to their kin, which introduces challenges in terms of saving and investing in their business. One example is: "*I do not save much. I need to help my parents and pay two of my siblings' college fees. . . On the other hand, I know that my business is not growing. . . hmm. . . It is my obligation to support my family.*" Corroborating this, a study by Grimm et al. (2013) in Western Africa identified "forced redistribution" through kinship ties as a challenge to entrepreneurs' saving and investment

Almost all (90%) of the women were members of more than one business association and believe that they have benefited from being members. However, some of the responses point to the role demands associated with being a member of a professional network, such as the scheduling conflicts created by unexpected meetings, trainings, and workshops. One example is as follows:

> *I am a member of three women's business associations. . . But the associations lack coordination; the leaders are busy with their own business. For instance, last time (August 10, 2016), the president of one of the associations called me and informed me that there would be business impact training on August 11, 2016. I did not want to miss the training. In the meantime, I had an appointment with weavers (suppliers).*

2.3.4.1.2. Business Environment (Work Context)

Sub-themes included under business environment include business-related activities, which demand women entrepreneurs' time and efforts and create conflict with the women entrepreneurs' roles within their family and/ or are incompatible with the social role expectations.

In this study, most of the respondents (80%) articulated issues related to the business environment as being constraining factors in balancing role demands. These factors are listed below.

<u>Women entrepreneurs' relations with their employee</u>: Owners (managers) need to delegate responsibilities to others to reduce workload and conflict. Some respondents do not have employees with the required skills and thus cannot confidently delegate tasks to them. This is due to a limited financial capacity for hiring

experienced employees. For instance, one of the respondents said, "*Hiring [an] experienced salesperson is expensive. Besides, if you train fresh sales-persons, they will leave you once they get experienced... So, it is difficult to trust employees in Ethiopia.*"

Effective employee–owner interventions can help build a sense of company ownership among employees (Wagner, Parker, and Christiansen, 2003) and motivate them to put forth their best efforts on the company's behalf. Indeed, some of the interviewed women entrepreneurs said that they had built a friendly working environment and empowered their employees; hence, the employees could handle most of the tasks and decisions in the company in the owners' absence.

Women entrepreneurs having diverse businesses in different locations: Some participants in the study believe that having a diversified business at different locations made it difficult to balance their different roles. Responses in this vein include: "*Hmm... managing business at different locations is stressful*"; "*The more the business expands, [the] more roles will be added that somehow makes [it] difficult to balance life*"; "*You need to work through others as the business expands into different locations, [otherwise] it is difficult to lead your life. . . hmm. . . Life is more than business.*"

In addition, based on our informal observations, none of the respondents' businesses were located near their homes. While this can minimize the chance of having to combine business duties with competing for household needs, women in this society rarely travel far from home because of their household responsibilities (Siba, 2016), so having a business located far from home can create role conflict.

Nature of the business: Almost all of the respondents believe that their work, as fashion designers and manufacturers, does not allow for a structured work schedule. This is because the nature of the business involves providing custom-made products: customers arrive according to their own schedule and their specifications can lead to abbreviated delivery times. In addition, each product and article of clothing is made according to the specifications of an individual customer, a time-consuming matter than can create role conflict. Consider these quotes from different respondents: *"I find*

[it] difficult to plan around my life since customers can come any time to order."; "The time required to finish clothes depends on the specifications from each customer."

The respondents believe that the process of dealing with a lack of fair competition in the country demands the women entrepreneurs to invest the majority of their time in their business, which leaves less time for family responsibilities and creates role conflicts. This is because the women entrepreneurs use local fabrics and traditional Ethiopian weavers and "tiles" to produce fashionable, tailor-made clothes for the modern woman that still have a cultural touch. Because of this laborious process, these designers' clothes are more expensive than clothes imported from China. For example, one respondent discussed an experience she had just had the night before the interview: *"Yesterday, one of my clients gave me an order for her wedding. Then she made a phone call around 9:30 p.m. and informed me that she wanted to cancel the order because it was expensive. That was irritating; it should be time with my family, but I had no option than taking time and explaining to her about our intricate work. This is not my first experience".*

Entrepreneurs in the fashion industry have similar challenges. One of our researchers also wanted to buy a dress in one of the respondents' shops, but she found the price quite expensive. She asked the owner, "Is this not expensive?" And the owner went on to talk about the dress for 30 minutes, time that was taken away from other duties she might have been pursuing.

All the respondents stated that their business was dependent on weavers as a source of inputs (raw materials). Sometimes, the weavers fail to deliver the inputs as scheduled or according to specification, causing the entrepreneurs not to meet their customers' expectations. In addition, the entrepreneurs must also constantly find ways to meet their customers' expectations in the normal course of business, but in the process, they become over-burdened with extra responsibilities that can produce a role conflict. One respondent shared this example: "*We also buy some of the raw materials from [the] open market ("Merkato"). Sometimes we take orders from the customers for certain events. Unfortunately, we may not get the materials we need to make the dress. So, we need to find [a] plan B, which disturbs all of our schedules*."

2.3.4.1.3. Family Context

Family context includes responsibilities, family status and family support of the respondents which contribute to conflict between family and business-related activities. Most of the respondents (60%) articulated issues related to the difficulty of balancing family role demands with their business life. For example, one of the respondents said *". . I have two children of age 3 and 7, who need my full attention. Most of the time it is difficult to take care of them as I am busy with my work . . . . . ."*

Some of the participants believe that lack of proper support from their husband is constraining their capacity for balancing these various demands. Moreover, participants mentioned the Ethiopians cooking traditions which are tedious and time-consuming. Quote from a respondent, *"…. look at how long it takes to prepare 'doro wat' (chicken stew) in Ethiopia…. minimum of a day? Even more in some houses… it used to be something we prepare for special events but now becoming part of our everyday dish….my husband like to eat doro wat often …. you can imagine how challenging it is for me*."

It is also normal in Ethiopia for friends and/or extended family to make a visit without pre-schedule, which some of the respondents reported as forcing them to cancel their business. A respondent said, *"……it is our culture to warmly well come people at our home any time they visit us…but sometimes this creates a problem in my work…..for example yesterday, ……my friend comes to my home while I was preparing to leave for "shiromeda" to meet one of my suppliers who brought me cotton ….. I would be considered as rude if I told her I didn't have time…. but I decided to cancel my business appointment and served her coffee…."*

2.3.4.1. 4. Personal Factors

The last source of role conflict mentioned during the interview were personal factors. These among other things include experience, background, and personality.

Most (70 %) of the participants believe that women in Ethiopia operate at a disadvantage (in the household, as well as at an economic and political level) compared to men. However, some respondents argued that sometimes women's own perceptions were reinforcing the adverse effects of sociocultural barriers. The first example of this

is when women refuse to allow men to perform household tasks. As one respondent noted, "*The women themselves are the problem and responsible for overburdening themselves; because they do not want to see their men in the kitchen*."

Another case in point is a prevailing fear of the failure to strictly abide by social norms, as verbalized by another participant: "*In most situations, women create burdens on our life thinking that others will not accept us if we do not do this and that. . . if we do not behave like this and like that*."

A third factor is women's desire to be involved in everything and their perfectionist tendencies, exemplified by this quote: "*As women we have [a] common problem. We want everything to be perfect and want to be everywhere at the same time*."

Some of the respondents argued that a preexisting mindset and the status quo were also sources of role conflict. One entrepreneur put this as follows: "*Our biggest problem is our mental setup. We tend to see things in the way it used to be; that challenges [the] work–home balance. … Most of the women I know use the traditional ways of cooking, which are tedious and time-consuming… adding burden on their* life."

Others considered the background, personality, experience, access to different opportunities, and belief in their own capabilities as contributing factors to role conflict, assumptions touched upon in the following quote:

> *Conflict-related to multiple roles demands?... Hmm. . . I think it is different for all persons; it differs based on the personality of an individual, access, and mental makeup. Of course, somehow it is different for men and women. But for me, all people have their own challenges. For instance, I was born in Addis Ababa, went [to a] better school, got interesting education, had access to what I needed; the gender-related issues might not be significant, although they exist somehow. I believe that I am capacitated to handle them as they come. But does this work for most of the women who [are] deprived of access to opportunities? No, it does not. There are a lot of challenges for women out there. However, I want to emphasize that we need to believe in our capacity. Challenges to balance different roles always happen, but women need to believe in their capacity to handle [them].*

2.3.4.1. 5. Sources of Role Conflict According to Business Stage

The second research question of this study was how sources of the role conflict can differ based on the stage of the business stage. The findings are presented in this section.

Not all the respondents articulated each context similarly as a constraining factor. For example, most of the participants, who articulated issues related to social role expectations and family context (59 % and 66 %, respectively), had businesses in the seed and start-up stages. Although all the respondents found some factors (e.g. nature of the business) from the business environment to be constraining, employee-related issues (e.g. lack of skills) and supplier-related issues (e.g. lack of experience in choosing reliable suppliers) created more constraints at the start-up stage. For instance, here are two responses from entrepreneurs at this stage echoing similar sentiments: "*I have not yet had [a] network with any reliable supplier. I have challenges in these regards.*"; "*Some suppliers are not trustful; they can easily switch with little price differences. That disturbs our works because we have to give up some of our plans [so as] to locate another supplier*."

The size of the business and having to manage several business networks were challenges faced by the respondents with businesses at a mature stage. For instance, one respondent who had canceled her first appointment with one of our researchers explained why she did so as follow:

> *I came to one of my shops in the morning. But before I finished issues in the shop, I received phone calls from other shops. At the same time, I got phone calls from [the] production warehouse that something [went] wrong with the raw materials. So, I had to visit the suppliers, because issues pertaining to quality cannot be handled on [the] phone. And I had a meeting with you after an hour and other important issues which I had planned to do. But I couldn't handle all these. It was stressful and irritating. This was not the case when I had a small business at a single location, because everything used to be in the same place.*

Moreover, most of the respondents (60%) considered personal factors such as experience, background, and personality to be major challenges during the seed and start-up stages of a business.

2.3.4.2.Types of Role Conflict

What is the type of the role conflict experienced by women entrepreneurs? was the third research question. Women entrepreneurs experience three types of role conflict: time-based, strain-based and behavior-based as presented below.

Almost all the respondents frequently experience a lack of time in meeting all their role demands. As one woman said, "*OMG!... Hmm... time is a problem in business. Especially as women, other parts of life also need our time*."

In addition to time issues, more than half of the respondents reported incidents related to behavior-based conflicts. One example: "*Our culture teaches women to be submissive. In business, however, you have to boldly claim what belongs to you. You need to knock [on] every door of opportunity; otherwise, nothing will come to you. This is challenging for most of the women [doing] business in Ethiopia*." Another example was: "*Communication is very important in business... but in our society women are expected to be shy*."

Half of the respondents described experiences related to strain-based role conflicts. Some of the responses in this vein were: "*I often have headaches after work, cannot do household chores*"; "*Sometimes, I share the bad experiences [from the] workplace [with] my family at the dinner table... I think these practices [have] influenced, my kids... For instance, my son said, 'I will never do business.*"; "*Today I could not attend my son's graduation from the summer karate sports training. I felt guilty*."

2.3.4.2.1. Types of role conflict based on business stage

The other research question was: *how does the type of the role conflict differ*? based on the business stage. The result was analyzed and presented as follow.

Most of the behavior-based role conflict was articulated by respondents in the start-up stage. For instance, one respondent who has owned her venture for two years said, "*It is difficult to behave like an ideal businessperson, because society expects women to be 'caring' and 'humble.' But in business, you have to negotiate*." Respondents at the business growth and maturity stages also mentioned that they had found it more difficult to break social norms and behave like entrepreneurs during the

earlier stages of their business than in their current stage. One such business owner said, "*I used to limit myself at the beginning; that is my [female] nature. But that did not work in the business. Now everywhere I go, I talk to people; that is how I come across some of the opportunities and business networks.*" Another said, "*In our society, individuals, especially women, do not talk about themselves and their capacity and success to others. In business, on the other hand, one has to promote herself. [This was] more challenging at the beginning*."

Most of the respondents who expressed role conflict experiences related to strain-based conflict, are at the start-up stage. Consider this response from a respondent who has been in business for three years: "*Sometimes I get annoyed at [the] workplace and [have] the same feeling: I can't properly interact with my family at home. As a result, one day my son asked me why I was mad at them. I felt bad about myself and my work. I am not sure... hmm... the business may . . . end before it starts*."

Some respondents at the growth and maturity stages also described the challenges related to strain-based role conflict at earlier stages. For example: *"I used to quarrel at home over simple things; this was because all the issues were on my shoulders. But now I do not take all these issues [home] with m*e." Finally, no respondent at the maturity stage described experiences related to the strain-based conflict.

2.3.4.3. Intensity of role conflict based on business stage

After they had presented their narratives on sources and types of role conflict, each respondent was asked to rate how often they had experienced role conflict during the last year. Their responses are presented in Table 2.2. As indicated in the table, half of the respondents (50 percent) expressed that they had "sometimes" experienced role conflict. Where as, none of the respondents had said "not at all". This shows that role conflict is invitable at all the stages of business, but the degree varies. The highest number of those who responded "often" (3/7) were in the start-up category. Most of the respondents in the growth (3/5) and maturity (3/5) stages rated the intensity of

their role conflict as "sometimes." None of the respondents from the growth or maturity stage felt that they experienced role conflict "very often."

The only respondent who felt she had experienced role conflict "very often" was from the start-up stage. As indicated in the table, 80% of the respondents from the start-up stage reported experiencing role conflict very often and often, indicating that the level of role conflict is highest at the start- stage of business.

Each respondent was asked if the frequency of role conflict had been the same or had changed over time and, if the latter, what had made it change. All of the respondents believed that the role conflict they experienced had changed over time. Some respondents who had once worked in a paid job, for instance, said that self-employment had enabled them to decide when and how to do things, but also led them to work longer hours and having less time for other roles. One example: "*Starting my own business makes me do things in my own time. I can work the whole night, for that matter, when I have to… But when I was an employee, the working hours were from 8:30 a.m. to 5:30 p.m., so I had to be in the office during this time. In fact, I had time after 5:30 p.m. to socialize with friends or family. Socializing like that is challenging now because I often schedule meetings with clients after 6:00 p*.m."

The respondents in the growth and maturity stages were also directed to compare their current experience with their start-up stages. They accordingly stated that while they had experienced role conflict at both stages, they had a greater capacity for managing multiple roles in their current stage. As one experienced entrepreneur put it, "*The challenge to balance home, business, and social affairs [is] always there. Now, in fact, I know what to do to balance my life…I feel that I have been more capacitated than before*." Another example: *"I believe that I am in a better position to manage my life. I have been in business for more than 20 years. … I do not have to [get] involved in every detail … I can manage [things over the] phone. Besides, I have learned to be confident, optimistic, and resilient toward life*."

Table 2.2: Intensity of Role Conflict at Different Stages of Entrepreneurship

Theme	Entrepreneurship stage				Total
Intensity of role conflict	Seed (n=5)	Start-up (n = 5)	Growth (n = 5)	Maturity (n = 5)	n = 20
Very often	0	1	0	0	1
Often	1	3	2	1	7
Sometimes	3	1	3	3	10
Not often	2	0	0	1	1
Not at all	0	0	0	0	0

2.3.4.4. Coping strategies

Which coping strategies do women entrepreneurs in SSA use to manage role conflict? was also key research question raised at the beginning. Accordingly, the survey asked entrepreneurs about their efforts to manage competing time demands, behavioral expectations, and strain from their involvement in multiple roles. Subsequently, nine types of coping strategies were identified from the responses (see Table 2.3). These are described below.

Social support: Most of the respondents (90%) seek free support from their husbands, extended family, children, and or friends. Examples were: "*I ask my husband to help in some of the household activities.*"; "*When I travel, my aunt takes care of my kid, which is the good thing [about] living in Ethiopia.*"; "*I talk to other women who have been through the same experience.*"

Hire outside support: All of the respondents hire either in-home help or employees at the workplace, or both, to share some of their roles.

Discuss issues with the role senders: Many the respondents negotiate with and/or sometimes confront their husbands, clients, suppliers, and social networks to redefine the role expectations. One of the responses was "*When I feel that my schedules clash and [it will be] difficult to meet customers' orders on the scheduled day, I call and negotiate with them.*" Some respondents (40%) also challenged the societal definition of roles. Two such responses were: "*We do not have [a] classification [of] men's and women's jobs in my family. My husband and I share household chores. That helps me a lot when it comes to balancing roles.*"; "*I proved*

my capacity in business; household roles [are] not . . . reserved only for me anymore. … I have the confidence to explain when I fail to meet social role expectations."

Integrate roles: A significant number of the respondents (70%) integrated two or more roles from different domains. Some of the responses include: "*I bring my kid to my workplac*e."; "*I often invite friends to my workplace*."; "*I carry my goods [to] different social events so that I can combine social affairs and business.*"

Focus on entrepreneurial roles: Most of the respondents (65%) prioritize entrepreneurial roles over family and social role expectations. One example was the woman who said, "*There is always a person who can handle household chores better than me or up to my standard, so I focus on my business.*"

Focus on family and social role expectations: Some of the respondents (30%) prioritize family and social role expectations over entrepreneurial roles. Examples were: "*I don't respond to business issues when I am at home."; "I close my business and take my daughter [on] vacation*."; "*I try to not behave in a way that contradicts with social norms, though [the] business [might require it*]."

Plan and schedule: Around half of the respondents stated that they divide their time according to the role demands in each domain (work, family, social). An example of this was: "Before I go to bed, I schedule for the next day. If I have a lot to do at [the] workplace and need to socialize, I wake up early [to] do some household chores and leave [at] 7:00 a.m., so that I can avoid [a] stressful day."

Work harder for longer hours: Women aimed at meeting all the role demands by working harder and longer than usual whenever role conflicts are experienced. The majority of the respondents (75%) use this type of coping strategy.

Take no action and/or divert attention: Although this is not a common coping mechanism, as indicated by the responses from most of the participants, one respondent replied that she does not make any conscious effort when things are unmanageable. Another respondent reported that she diverts her attention by watching movies and/or taking vacations when she experiences stress from role pressures.

2.3.4.4.1 Coping Strategies Experienced According to Business Stage

How does the choice of coping strategy differ depending on the business stage was also among the research questions that were raised before the field research? The results show that the type of coping strategies used varied among respondents depending on the stage of their business. For instance, the strategies of discussing issues with role senders, prioritizing the entrepreneurial role over family and social roles, and planning and scheduling, were mainly described by respondents in the growth and maturity stages (see Table 2.3).

Those that involve integrating roles and prioritizing family and social roles over the entrepreneurial role were mainly described by respondents in the seed and start-up stages (see Table 2.3). In addition, compared to respondents from other stages, fewer respondents in the maturity stage described working harder for longer hours as a coping strategy.

After recording the narratives of each respondent, they were asked whether they had used the same types of coping strategies consistently or changed them over time. For instance, the respondents in the seed and start-up business stages were asked to compare their current job as an entrepreneur to their previous work in a paid position. The respondents replied that they used similar coping strategies to some extent but relied more on role integration and working harder for longer hours as an entrepreneur than they had done in their paid jobs. Two examples: "*In [my] paid job, I had limited options during . . . working hours, though I used to take my own actions to balance my life. Self-employment enables me to combine my roles. For instance, sometimes I bring my kids to my workplace, and as they play in my office's compound, I can do my work.*"; "*After I started my own business, I often used to feel guilty [about] not being with my friends after 5:00 p.m. Then I asked them to come to the cafeteria in the building where my shop [is], so I can handle business while socializing with my friends.*"

The respondents from the growth and maturity stages were also asked to compare their current coping strategies with those from their start-up stage. They

stated that they had used all possible options to manage their multiple roles at all the stages. However, they used more proactive coping strategies in their current stages than before. Examples were: "*There are things that I commonly do these days. For instance, if I feel that I can't deliver customer orders on the scheduled date, I call and negotiate with them in advance. But previously I used to overstretch myself. In addition, I do not [get] involved in all the details; I do prioritize and avoid some of the things which I cannot do. I also plan my life and my business.*"; "*Before and now? Hmm… it depends… Of course, I tend to take [more] prior actions now than before; from experience, . . . I know about clashing schedules. For instance, during the month of holidays and wedding season, the demand for traditional clothes is high; hence, we expect more orders. So, we hire additional provisional employees and negotiate with the suppliers. On top of that, I try to devote myself to the company's activities in such a way that we can deliver the orders on the scheduled day as per the specifications.*"

2.3.4.4.2. Nature of Role Conflict and Coping Strategies

Some responses indicated that the coping strategy adopted depends on the source of the role conflict. For instance, when family role demands create conflict at the workplace, coping strategies such as seeking family support, negotiating with the family, and hiring in-home help were reported.

Similarly, for role conflicts arising from social role expectations, strategies such as negotiating with and/or confronting the role senders (e.g. friends and family) were reported by some of the respondents. Some of the cited examples include: "*Whenever I find [it] difficult to socialize . . .as per the expectation, I explain my problem.*"; "*People always expect women to do the household chores. I do not believe [in] this; there is always someone who can do household chores better than me and I [would] rather focus on . . . designing, where I am better.*" Furthermore, the respondents used related coping strategies for role conflicts arising in the business environment. Examples were: "*I work the whole night to deliver orders on the scheduled date.*"; "*I often negotiate with suppliers.*"; "*I have capacitated my employees; hence I can*

delegate some of my responsibilities." Personal factors also influence coping strategies.

Consider these quotes: *"I am not [a] perfectionist; I let it go when I can't [do it]."; "I can't sleep unless I finish work for the day… That is me*." The responses also indicated that types of role conflict and types of coping strategies were associated. For instance, when the respondents lack sufficient time to meet all their role demands, they work harder for longer hours. One woman provided an example of this: "*When I have business meetings or have to socialize during the day . . . , I do the designing work in the evenin*g." The respondents also negotiate with people around them to redefine the social role expectations, in order to manage most of the behavior-based role conflict. Some examples were: "*I am an assertive person. That is how it should be in business. But others consider me . . . weird and I try to explain myself*."; "*Some people said, 'You are a man.' I [told] them that I am not a man, because I am not*." Moreover, the respondents seek emotional care from family and/or avoid the situation to manage stressful situations. Examples: "*When I face problems related to my business, I discuss [them] with my family to get relief*."; "*When things overlap and worry me, I shut everything down and [take] time for myself*."

Table 2.3: Coping Strategies Based on Stages of Business

Theme		Entrepreneurship stage					
Types of coping strategies	Description	Seed (n = 5)	Start-up (n = 5)	Growth (n = 5)	Maturity (n = 5)	Total (n =20)	Examples
Social support	Use family and extended family labor and get emotional support from husband and friends	4	5	4	5	18	"I asked my friend to represent me in our street (village) meetings." "Sometimes I call my friends to my workplace. We have fun while they help me with my work."
Hire outside support	Hire in-home help and employees who can share roles in the family and work contexts, respectively	5	5	5	5	20	"I have hired two professional designers who can handle customers' orders and deal with suppliers; I can somehow create my own time now." "I have a babysitter who takes care of my two kids." "I hired one lady for household chores."
Discuss with the role senders	Negotiate with and/or confront family (e.g. husband) , clients, suppliers, and social networks	2	2	5	5	14	"I have multiple roles and can't socialize … in all the social networks, so I explain my problems. People around me have started understanding me." "Whenever I miss business network meetings because of [they] conflict with my other roles, I call the association president and discuss my problem in advance."
	Challenging the societal role definitions	0	1	3	4	8	"I am a very simple person; I love [the] simple life. I do whatever I can and should be done, and I love to relax. But others see these things [about] me differently."
Prioritize entrepreneurial roles	Respond to entrepreneurial role demands first when there are conflicting role demands	2	2	4	5	13	"I [would] rather focus on my business work. I can explain to family and friends if I fail to meet their expectations." "I try not to [return] calls from non-business networks while I am at [the] workplace." "I don't have to do everything. For instance, I do not cook all the time.
Prioritize family and social role expectations	Respond to family and social roles first when there is an incompatibility with entrepreneurial role demands	3	2	1	0	6	"My family is the reason I started the business in the first place. I choose to put them first." "Fulfilling expectations in my religion is my priority."
Plan and schedule	Planning and organizing activities	2	1	4	4	11	"I have a plan for each activity and every responsibility in my life. That has helped me to balance my roles."
Integrate roles	Undertake activities from different roles together	4	5	3	2	14	"Sometimes I take my kids to [the] playground; at the same time, [I] arrange meetings with my clients or employees or friends. That is how I merge different roles."
React to all roles	Work harder and longer than usual	4	5	4	2	15	"I work 24/7 to balance things in my life." "I work weekdays and weekends." "I do not have weekdays and weekends; that is how I try to meet all my responsibilities."
Take no action and/or divert attention	No conscious effort to meet role demands	1	0	1	0	2	"When things overlap and [get] stressful …, I shut everything down, … [take] time for myself."

2.4. Concluding Remarks

So, what are the sources of the role conflict, how do women entrepreneurs in Ethiopia experience role conflict, and how do they cope with role conflict over the business stage?

The literature surveyed in this chapter has argued that family, work, and personal demands are sources of role conflict. Adding to the literature, this chapter found social role expectations as a primary source of role conflict among women entrepreneurs in Ethiopia(Figure 2.1.). This may be because Ethiopia is dominated by patriarchal systems and a culture that puts various restrictions on women.

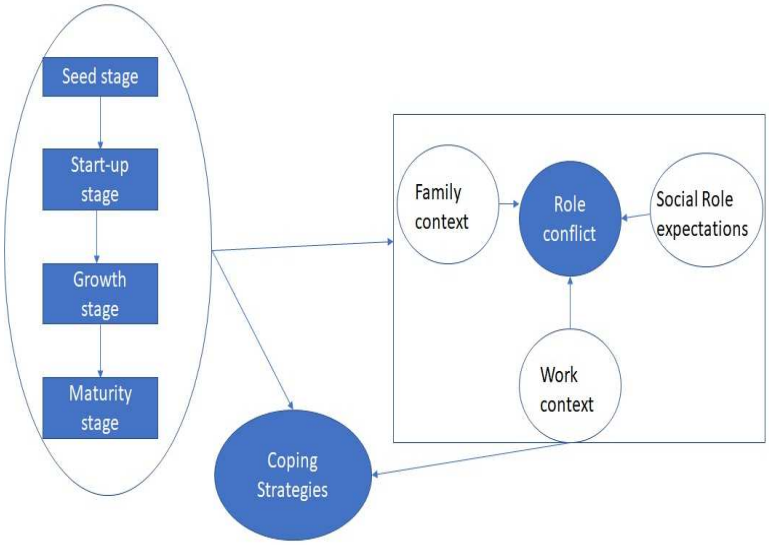


Figure 2.1: Model of Role conflict and coping across stages of business developed from the case study findings

Women entrepreneurs in the literature tend to have three types of role conflict: time-based, strain-based and behavioral-based. This was also identified as relevant for the case of Ethiopian women entrepreneurs. In this chapter it was specifically found that behavioral-based role conflict in Ethiopia arise from the social role expectations for women entrepreneurs (e.g. submissiveness). Time-based conflict is however the most prevailing type of role conflict. It was found that Ethiopian women entrepreneurs claim to experience greater role conflict in self-employment than they did in their paid jobs.

As far as coping with role conflict over the business stage is concerned, it was found that the importance of various factors on the sources, types, and intensity of the role conflict, varies across the stages of business.

For instance, role conflict is more frequently experienced during the start-up stage. These findings could be attributed to the fact that lack of experience and limited resources at early stage of business. For example, women entrepreneurs start-up stage have limited resources and experiences which result them to experience of role conflict more often than those in the later stages. Another explanation for this is the finding from the case study, which shows that women entrepreneurs who are at the seed and start-up stages : (1) lack sufficient experience to balance different role demands; (2) have not yet proved their achievement, which would help them gain support from others and challenge the socio-cultural barriers; and (3) do not have sufficient confidence in their business skills. Moreover, high level of conflict at an early stage can be attributed to lowering time and standard of living for family which women entrepreneurs and their family may not yet accustomed to the lifestyle after starting a new business. In addition, at the start-up stage, an entrepreneur must be involved in every aspect of the business, which may require the women business owners to forgo other parts of their life, thus creating role conflict. This was confirmed in this chapter: most of the respondents at the start-up stage indicated that they involved in every aspect of their business. Most of the owners of start-up businesses in this study have younger families and dependent kids, as compared to those at growth and maturity stages, which can also contribute to the higher level of role conflict at the start-up stage.

Which coping strategies do women entrepreneurs in SSA use to manage role conflict? And how does the choice of coping strategy differ, depending on the business stage? It was found that the women entrepreneurs in Ethiopia use nine different coping strategies. Adding to the previous studies which indicate coping strategies depend on the nature of the role our results show that the selection of the particular type of coping strategy depends on the stage of business.

For instance, entering into discussion with role senders, was used as a coping strategy primarily by the women entrepreneurs, who are at the growth and maturity

stages. This may be because at those stages, the women entrepreneurs are in a better position in terms of business networks, are more confident and experienced, which empowers them to negotiate with their relations.

Focusing on the entrepreneurial role over the family and social roles as coping strategy was mainly used by respondents in the growth and maturity stages. Integrating roles, focusing on family and social roles are mainly used by respondents at an early stage of business.

Finally, the findings should be interpreted with caution since the sample incorporated educated and urban women entrepreneurs involved in growth-oriented businesses and textile sector in Ethiopia. Therefore, they might not reflect the role conflicts and coping strategies in other sectors, among less-educated, rural women entrepreneurs or survivalist women entrepreneurs. This limitation calls for more research with other samples.

Another limitation can be attributed to the researcher's conception of the world and personal convictions. The principal investigator is pursuing her Ph.D., with an interest in role conflict problems; the focus thus tends to be on the negative aspects of the role pressures from family, work, and social expectations, rather than the complementarity of these domains. To address this problem, the interpreted data was shared with some of the respondents; external researchers were invited in to prop up the researchers' thinking on the research process, and the coding was performed independently by four individuals. All these actions might not have fully overcome the limitations of the primary researcher's bias, but they did possibly reduce them.

Despite its limitations, the research has implications for future. Firstly, the existing literature has not adequately included the social context in the study of role conflict. In this study, it was found that social role expectations are an important factor in the experience of role conflict and coping strategies among women entrepreneurs in Ethiopia. Future research on role conflict among female entrepreneurs should, therefore, focus more on this aspect in other cultures or countries as well.

Secondly, in this study it was argued that women entrepreneurs in the textile sector in Ethiopia have difficulties arising from the experiences of role conflict as they

struggle to live up to the standards of "being a good woman" and an ideal business person. However, female entrepreneurs are not homogenous, and hence, research on role conflicts and coping strategies among women entrepreneurs needs to be extended to other sectoral, cultural or country contexts.

Thirdly, the conceptual model developed in this study (figure 2.1) needs to be extended to capture the influence of role conflict and coping strategies on entrepreneurial performance. For instance, at the seed and start-up stages, women entrepreneurs tend to integrate and focus on family and social needs over business role demands. A higher level of role conflict and growth-constraining coping strategies at the seed and start-up stages could contribute to the higher rate of exit at these stages. For example, although women's entrepreneurship in SSA has grown at a higher rate than any other part of the world around half of the women who start a business there exit the marketplace before their business becomes established. Examining the effect of coping strategies on entrepreneurial performance will contribute, then contribute to the growth and expansion of women-owned business in SSA.

In conclusion, there has been a lack of empirical studies on role conflict and coping strategies of women entrepreneurs in SSA. This study tried to make up for this lack. The theoretical contribution made was to argue that role conflict and coping strategies depend on the stage of business. The empirical contribution was to show that social role expectations is the primary source of role conflict in Ethiopia. In particular, this study found that at an early stage of their business, women entrepreneurs not only experience role conflict more frequently than at the later stages of business but are also more likely to use coping strategies that can constrain their business. Interventions to promoting women's entrepreneurship would thus benefit if it takes into consideration that stage in which a business is in.

Chapter 3

Measuring Conflict Between Social Role Expectations and Women's Entrepreneurial Role Demands: Evidence from Ethiopia[5]

[5] An earlier version of this chapter was presented at the African Academy of Management conference, Addis Ababa, January 3-8, 2018.

3.1. Introduction

There are certain characteristics that are specific to entrepreneurship (Dijkhuizen et al., 2014; Timmons, 1978). Some of the unique characteristics of successful entrepreneurs include innovativeness, proactiveness, risk-taking, self-confidence, dealing with failure, tolerance for ambiguities, boldness, aggressiveness, competing against a self-imposed standard and commitment to venture (Mitchell 2004; van Eeden et al., 2005; Kropp et al. 2008; Langevang et al., 2015; Rauch, Wiklund, Lumpkin, and Frese, 2009).

Dijkhuizen et al. (2014) emphasize three job demands that they see as very specific to entrepreneurship: 'time demands', 'uncertainty and risk' and 'responsibilities'. based on this distinction, the concept of Entrepreneurial Role Demands (ERDs) in this study will refer to the time demands, innovativeness, risk-taking, proactiveness, and commitment toward venture that characterizes entrepreneurship.

One of the challenges that women entrepreneurs, and in particular those in SSA face (see chapter 1) is that their Social Role Expectations (SREs) may conflict with the ERDs as just mentioned. SREs refer to the prescriptive gender role stereotypes as they portray the attributes ascribed to women in a given society (Zehnter, Olsen, and Kirchler, 2018). For example, in SSA the social roles expected of women is that they should be selfless, put family roles first and generally be conservative (Gelb, 2001; Skapa, 2005). These social role expectations also determine the jobs considered appropriate for women (Azmat and Fujimoto 2016). Hence, social role expectations of women will emphasize that women exhibit qualities such as compassion, caring and communality, which could be in conflict with the more masculine cultural indicators of entrepreneurial roles required to succeed in business (Hechavarria and Ingram 2016).

Despite the potential for role conflict among women entrepreneurs, arising out of the potential incompatibility between their SREs and ERDs there is still a gap in the literature in this regard. In particularly, as far as could be discerned, there have been no prior attempts to measures role conflict in SSA. To address this omission and

contribute more generally to the literature on women entrepreneurship in Africa, it is attempted in this chapter to develop scales for measuring SRE and ERD conflict. Developing scale measures for the role conflict between the SRE and ERD can add to the existing scale measures of work and family conflict and can increase the effectiveness to examine the role conflict among women entrepreneurs in general and in SSA context. In addition, identifying the conflict between SRE and ERD can help to understand female entrepreneurs' behavior in SSA context for effective interventions.

The remainder of the chapter will proceed as follows first relevant literature on role conflict, social role theory as well as SRE and ERD conflict among female entrepreneurs in SSA are discussed. Then, procedures for ERD and SRE conflict are discussed in detail, scale items developed and validated. In the final section the results are presented.

3.2. Relevant Literature

In this section the concept of role conflict is defined. Then, using social role theory, it is explained how social role expectation can be a source of role conflict, especially for female entrepreneurs in SSA. The types and directions of social role conflict are identified, and the relation between SRE and ERD in SSA explored.

3.2.1. Role conflict

In this study, the term "role conflict" refers to the inter-role conflict that arises from participation in different domains that are incompatible in some respects (Kahn et al., 1964). The consensus is that role theory provides the widest scope for studying role conflict (Michel et al., 2009). "Role theory proposes that human behavior is guided by expectations held both by the individual and by other people. The expectations correspond to different roles individuals perform or enact in their daily lives" (Ashforth et al., 2000, 3).

Role conflict theory emphasizes that roles in different domains derive from different norms and can thus be incompatible and create conflict (Michel et al., 2009).

Scholars have approached role conflict from different perspectives. One perspective is from boundary theory (e.g. Ashforth et al., 2000), another from

enrichment theory (e.g. Greenhaus and Powell, 2006), a third from ecological systems theory (e.g. Grzywacz and Marks, 2000), and a fourth from spillover theory (e.g. Ilies, Wilson, and Wagner, 2009).

Three types of role conflict are discussed in literature (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). These are (1) time-based, which involves competing time demands across different roles; (2) strain-based, which arises when pressures in one role, weakens performance in the other role; and (3) behavior-based, which occurs when behavior required in one role is incompatible with behavior in the other role.

Most of the empirical studies have focused on time-based and strain-based role conflict (Dierdorff and Ellington, 2008).

Behavioral-based conflict may be very relevant for the case of women in entrepreneurship. In chapter two, it was found that women in SSA, whether they are entrepreneurs or not, are expected to behave as per the social expectations (e.g. putting others' need first and look after other members of family and community). As business owners, for example, female entrepreneurs engage in competition with others and aggressively look for opportunities. The two are incompatible and create behavior-based role conflict.

Many scholars have argued that role conflict, such as between work and family demands, can be most fully understood by considering its bidirectional nature (e.g. Carlson et al., 2000; Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985; König and Cesinger, 2015). When family roles interfere with workplace roles, it creates a family-to-work conflict (F-to-W conflict); when workplace roles interfere with family roles, it creates work-to-family conflict (W-to-F conflict). When entrepreneurial role demand interferes with social role expectation, it creates entrepreneurial role demands conflict to social role expectations conflict (ERD-to-SRE conflict). When social role expectation interferes with entrepreneurial role demand, it creates social role expectations conflict to entrepreneurial role demands conflict (SRE- to- ERD conflict)

3.2.2. Social role theory and SRE and ERD conflict among female entrepreneurs in SSA

In social role theory women are stereotypically defined as friendly, warm, unselfish, sociable, interdependent, family focused, and relationship oriented (Eisenchlas, 2013). These stereotypic views challenges women's involvement in roles socially prescribed to men: such as leadership (Zehnter, Olsen, and Kirchler, 2018) or entrepreneurship. Women may even face social sanction when they behave contrary to social role expectations (Heilman and Okimoto, 2007), for instance by portraying masculine attributes typically associated with entrepreneurship (Hechavarria and Ingram, 2016).

It has been found that women who behave in a stereotypically masculine way as entrepreneurs tend to be socially devalued, considered as aggressive, pushy and evaluated more harshly than male entrepreneurs (Eagly et al., 1992; Rudman and Fairchild, 2004). The empirical evidence concerning gender role stereotypes are divided. Some studies find that as the number of women in leadership roles increases, this results in changes in female stereotypes (Eagly and Wood, 2013; Koenig and Eagly, 2014). The backlash hypothesis on the other hand argues that stereotyping incongruent with socially expected behavior gets punished (Rudman et al., 2012). For example, Zehnter, Olsen, and Kirchler (2018) found that stereotypes about 'how women are' might change but 'how women should be' might not.

Therefore, the increase of women in male domains, such as entrepreneurship, may not change stereotypes of 'how women should be' in society. Women entrepreneurs may suffer social sanctions when they behave in stereotypical contrary ways. This can lead to the role conflict between social role expectations and entrepreneurial role demands (Hundera et al., in press).

This role conflict potential is particularly likely in SSA, where social role expectations are strictly defined, and women need to be willing to bow to patriarchy (Mazonde and Carmichael, 2016). To be accepted in their society, women in SSA are

expected to be friendly, warm, caring, and relationship-oriented (Eisenchlas, 2013; Prentice and Carranza, 2002). On the other hand, entrepreneurs are assumed to possess characteristics such as decisiveness, innovativeness, and leadership (Nooteboom, 2005), that equip them with the capacities for overcoming resource constraints, influencing existing competencies, and exploiting business opportunities (Roxas and Chadee, 2013; Runyan, Huddleston, and Swinney, 2006). These characteristics are considered undesirable qualities for women in SSA countries (Prentice Carranza, 2002).

For example, in Zimbabwe, women are not expected to start and run their own business (Skapa, 2005) and "good" women are those who care for and put the needs of others before theirs. In Gambia and Zimbabwe, women are socialized to associate money with immorality, avoid conflict, and detach themselves from the behaviors needed in business, such as assertiveness (Chitsike, 2000; Della-Giusta and Phillips, 2006). In Zimbabwe, there is even a tendency to label successful women entrepreneurs as prostitutes (Chitsike, 2000).

In the case of Uganda, Dawa and Namatovu (2015) found that businesses owned by women are expected to have feminine features (e. g., to be conservative) and loan providers are hesitant to fund women's businesses that fall outside of this pattern.

As was reported in chapter 2 of this thesis, women in Ethiopia are also expected to behave according to the norms in their society, and these tend to be incompatible with the behavior associated with the ideal entrepreneur.

The literature is clear that entrepreneurial work demands long hours and commitment (Dijkhuizen et al., 2014; Drnovsek et al., 2010; Tetrick, Slack, Da Silva,and Sinclair, 2000; Timmons, 1978). This may mean, as Timmons (1978) argues, that entrepreneurs should put their businesses first. That means that entrepreneurial role demands supersede family and social life. Contrary to what Timmons (1978) and others argue about successful entrepreneurs who are committed to their venture, society in the SSA context expect women to be sensitive to the needs of others (Prentice and Car-ranza, 2002) and to spend time on social roles. Moreover, women in SSA are expected to meet social needs through their business, indicating the lack of a clear

border between social and entrepreneurial roles (Hechavarria, Ingram, Justo, and Terjesen, 2012; Meyskens, Elaine Allen, and Brush, 2011).

Individuals in SSA, whether they are men or women, are expected to be committed to their roles in their social network (Kuada, 2009). Although social networks can have both a positive and a negative effect on entrepreneurial activities, it is the positive outcomes that have been emphasized in the literature (Adler and Kwon, 2002; Khayesi and George, 2011). Social networks can enhance access to resources and information and build trust, but not without certain role expectations being met (Adler and Kwon, 2002; Khayesi and George, 2011; Kiggundu, 2002). For example, business owners in SSA tend to be considered as wealthy and the society expects them to support their relatives financially to maintain their kinship, which can genitively affect further investment in their ventures (Kiggundu, 2002).

Some of the role expectations associated with members of certain social networks can create incompatibility with entrepreneurial roles. For example, the women entrepreneurs interviewed in Ethiopia stated that they have benefited from being members of business associations, but that the rules, roles, and obligations associated with the network, required them to forgo some of their business schedules. Moreover, most of the respondents said that sharing their experiences with the members of the association resulted in others copying their business ideas. Similarly, Njeru and Njoka (2001) in Kenya found that some women entrepreneurs reported that business idea gets copied by others when they share these during business association meetings. Other studies also show that social obligations in SSA, such as sharing income and participating in social functions, tend to outweigh the benefits from social networks for business owners (Dawa and Namatovu, 2015; Kuada, 2009).

Similarly, in Uganda, according to Kiggundu (2002) , a higher number of kin within a social network, is associated with a higher level of social demands on an entrepreneur. The case study in Ethiopia also showed that women are expected to be part of informal social networks by being involved in social functions. Furthermore, some of the religious obligations in Ethiopia are incompatible with the expected behavior of successful entrepreneurs. Likewise, Della-Giusta and Phillips (2006) have

indicated that women entrepreneurs in Gambia face difficulties arising primarily from their community and religious duties. For women entrepreneurs in SSA, therefore, the imperative of meeting SREs can interfere with the long work hours and commitments required to be a successful businessperson.

The literature review and case study for this research, therefore, show that women entrepreneurs in SSA are expected one way or another to meet the SREs attached to being female. A violation of social expectations can lead to various forms of punishment and devaluation. At the same time, as entrepreneurs, women are required to possess the competences believed to be essential for success in business. Therefore, as women entrepreneurs try to meet SREs as well as ERDs, conflicts can arise between the two realms.

Further comparisons between the SREs and ERDs of women in SSA are presented in Table 3.1. The left-hand column contains SREs associated with women in the SSA context; while the right-hand column contains a corresponding incompatible role from the ERDs. Taken together, the rows indicate the role conflict arising from the interface between women's social and business demands in this region.

Table 3.1: Comparison of SREs in SSA Countries and General ERDs

Social Role Exception (SRE)[2]in SSA context	Entrepreneurial Role Demand (ERD)
Women are expected to adopt conservative strategies in life (Della-Giusta and Phillips (2006); Ozigbo and Ezeaku (2009). For instance, in Nigeria and Ethiopia, women tend to copy one another (Ozigbo and Ezeaku, 2009); in Gambia women tend to tend to only enter businesses where many women are congregated (Della-Giusta and Phillips, 2006).	Entrepreneurship demands risk-taking, innovativeness[3], and proactiveness (e.g. Wiklund and Shepherd, 2005; Rauch et al., 2009).
Women are expected to make family role demands their top priority (case study).	Successful entrepreneurs prioritize their business (Timmons, 1978).
Women are expected to socialize with those around them (neighbors, extended family, friends). Example: Because of underlying customs, practices, and beliefs, female business owners in Gambia only take their business commitments half-seriously (Della-Giusta and Phillips, 2006).	Entrepreneurship demands long work hours and full commitment (e.g. Dijkhuizen et al., 2014).
Religious obligations and mores often require women to close their businesses on religious holidays and to generally put others first, rather than being competitive (e.g. a case study from Ethiopia; Della-Giusta and Phillips, 2006). Specifically, women are characterized as being selfless and concerned for others and thus tend to put the needs of the other party above their own in the negotiation process (e.g. Ubuntu[6]).	Entrepreneurship demands aggressive competitiveness. Example: Junior (2015) has found that aggressive competitiveness had a positive and significant impact on retailer performance.
Women are not expected to talk about their skills and successes. Women are also expected to be around the house. For instance, Muslim women in Nigeria are not expected to work outside the home or own their own business (Amine and Staub, 2009).	Entrepreneurship requires alertness to opportunities and ability to inspire others. Example: Matsuno, Mentzer, and Özsomer (2002) found that entrepreneurial proclivities such as the tendency to act in proactive ways positively and significantly influence performance
A married woman is not expected to be the head of the household in most African countries (Cutura, 2006; Gelb, 2001; Gemini, 1993; Skapa, 2005). For example, in Ethiopia, there is a dominant belief that women are inferior or subordinate to men.	Entrepreneurs (owner-managers of a company) lead teams and manage business networks and other resources(Rauch and Frese,2000).
Women in Africa tend to work primarily in the informal sectors and in small-scale enterprises (Ozigbo and Ezeaku, 2009); they are not expected to become business people. In addition, businesses owned by women are expected to confirm their gender roles in order to get loans. For example, In Kenya, women entrepreneurs are only acceptable in sectors which are exceptions of female gender roles, such as selling of food items(Njeru and Njoka, 2001).	Successful entrepreneurs are achievement-oriented (Timmons, 1978).
In most African countries, social obligations require women to share their income with their extended family and community (Kiggundu, 2002; Della-Giusta and Phillips, 2006; Amine and Staub, 2009; Kuada, 2009; Dawa and Namatovu, 2015).	Entrepreneurship requires constant reinvestment to develop and expand the business(Kiggundu, 2002).
In Kenya, women are not expected to outshine their husbands (Njeru and Njoka, 2001). Amine and Staub (2009) have also indicated that there is a tendency to regard successful businesswomen as illegitimate in most SSA countries.	Entrepreneurship demands self-confidence, motivation, and achievement motivation (Pihie and Akmaliah,2009; Stewart and Roth, 2007).
In Zimbabwe, women are socialized to associate making money with immorality (Chant, 2008).	Entrepreneurs focus on economic value (Timmons, 1978). "Commercial entrepreneur has been conceptualized as someone who is concerned with the discovery and exploitation of profitable opportunities for private wealth (Hechavarria and Ingram, 2016:248)"

[6] This refers to "humaneness – a pervasive spirit of caring, harmony and hospitality, respect and responsiveness – that individuals and groups display for one another" (Mangaliso, 2001: 24).

3.3. Empirical study

In this section, procedures that were related to ERD and SRE conflict are discussed in detail. Then scale items developed and validated. Finally, the results are presented.

Boateng, et al. (2018) suggested three phases for developing and validating scales. Firstly, scope determination: items generation and content validation. Secondly, scale construction: pre-testing the questions, administering the survey, reducing the number of items, and understanding how many factors the scale captures. Thirdly, measurement validation or scale evaluation: the number of dimensions is tested, reliability is tested, and validity is assessed.

Accordingly, a number of procedures were followed to develop measures for SRE and ERD conflict. The first phase of scope determination was done from the literature review. Then, data from a case study from 20 women entrepreneurs was reviewed and analyzed in relation to ERDs.

The second phase was the scale construction. A total of 27 items were formulated, followed by a check on content adequacy based on expert judgment and pre-testing with selected women entrepreneurs. After this, data was collected from 408 women entrepreneurs in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, and both factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis were conducted.

The measurement validation was done by collecting additional data from 307 women entrepreneurs in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. Lastly, the aim of the measurement validation was to check whether or not the SRE and ERD conflict scales related differently to the dimensions of entrepreneurial success. Details for each step is provided in the following sections.

3.3.1. Scope Determination

The scope of items for SRE and ERD conflict was determined based on a survey of the literature on ERDs in general and the SREs experienced by women in SSA and supported by result from the case study from Chapter 2. This information, which is presented in section 3.2.5, was used to develop a questionnaire for measuring the conflict between SREs and ERDs.

3.3.2.Scale Construction

A total of 27 items out of which 15 items for the dimensions of SRE-to-ERD conflict and 12 items for ERD-to-SRE conflict were formulated based on the literature review and the case study. A five-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5) was employed, following the standard scales for work-and-family-conflict measures (e.g. Carlson et al., 2000). The items were then compiled into a sample questionnaire for the purposes of performing a content adequacy test.

The items were first critically reviewed by four experts – two sociologists and two experts on entrepreneurship. The expert opinions from the four professionals were used to determine the degree to which each item represented the interfacing of SRE and ERD definitions; the items were thus tested for face validity. Based on the suggestions from the four experts, four items (three items from ERD-to-SRE conflict and one item from SRE-to-ERD conflict) were removed. According to Schriesheim, Powers, Scandura, Gardiner, and Lankau (1993), a content adequacy test requires that the reviewers possess the intellectual capacity to perform the item rating task and that they be relatively free of serious potential bias.

In light of this, the use of scholars from related fields is appropriate for the content adequacy test. Experts who involve in the content validity are sociologist and entrepreneurship scholars who have the capacity to judge each item in each construct. These individuals have the capacity to judge the content domain: the representativeness of individual items as an aspect of each construct and the collective representativeness of all items for each construct.

Then 10 women entrepreneurs who had not been part of the case study filled out a questionnaire containing the 23 items: two women entrepreneurs from Ghana, one from Nigeria, one from Kenya, and six from Ethiopia, who had been contacted through social media and asked to complete the survey. After analyzing the survey questionnaire filled by the 10 women entrepreneurs, five items were deleted. This is because the women entrepreneurs rated the five items as less associated with the experience of women entrepreneurs.

In general, the outcome of the content adequacy judgments resulted in adjustments to some of the items and nine items were deleted. The nine items were removed, as it did not pass adequacy test by the expert and survey result from the 10 women entrepreneurs.

3.3.2.1. Scale Measurement: SRE and ERD Conflict Scales

To measure SREs and ERDs conflict scales, the survey was conducted between September and November 2016. The questionnaires were filled out by the respondents in the presence of trained enumerators, who were on hand to clarify the survey items. To increase the response rate, researchers established a network with various women entrepreneurs' associations (e.g. Organization for Women in Self Employment [WISE] and the Ethiopian Chapter of the African Women Entrepreneurship Program [AWEP]). Members of these associations are women owner-managers of private companies in various sectors all over Ethiopia. When asking for the consent of women entrepreneurs to participate in the study, they were provided with letters of support for the study from the Addis Ababa Chamber of Commerce. The network that was created with women entrepreneurs' associations was particularly beneficial in terms of enabling that researcher to participate in training, meetings, workshops, and trade shows and meet women entrepreneurs and to collect data from a large number of respondents within a short period of time.

It took each respondent about 35 to 50 minutes to complete the entire questionnaire. Since most of the survey was conducted face-to-face and we contacted networks closely related to respondents, a response rate of 77% was attained. Before the data was entered into the SPSS software (version 20), each completed questionnaire was checked for thoroughness, and consequently, 50 questionnaires had to be excluded because most of the scale items on SRE and ERD conflict had not been answered. In addition to that, a missing value analysis (MVA) was performed to avoid Type I and Type II errors and increase statistical precision, eliminating another 42 questionnaires. This left 408 completed questionnaires for analysis.

A measure for SRE-to-ERD conflict and ERD-to-SRE conflict was tested on a final sample of 408 women entrepreneurs in Ethiopia. The aim of the study was to test whether the factors for SRE-to-ERD conflict and ERD-to-SRE conflict that had been identified in the literature review and case study, could be established from the 18 items ultimately developed during the content adequacy test. A survey was initially administered to 500 formally registered women entrepreneurs in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, consisting of the 18 items left after the content adequacy test. The women entrepreneurs rated the degree to which they felt that they experienced the role conflict indicated in each of these items under both SRE- to- ERD conflict and ERD- to- SRE conflict. Their responses were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5).

The sample included female owner-managers of companies located in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. That city was selected because it contains the largest population of women entrepreneurs in the country (around 60% of all women entrepreneurs)(ILO, 2003) high-level economic activity. Information on women entrepreneurs in the city was obtained from multiple archival data sources. These included the websites of women-owned business enterprises, women's business associations, the Micro and Small-Scale Enterprise Agency, and the Chamber of Commerce. Then, key informants were interviewed to validate the archival data by checking if the women who registered were still in business and whether the business address was still valid.

Respondents were 35 years old on average (SD=10.5), which is comparable to the average age of the population of women entrepreneurs in SSA. For instance, the average age in West Africa is 39 (Otoo, Fulton, Ibro, and Lowenberg-DeBoer, 2011); in Tanzania, it is 31-40 (World Bank, 2016); in Uganda, it is 25-34 Dana and Dumez (2015); and in Ethiopia, it is 36 (Solomon (2010)).

About 35% of the respondents were college graduates and 27% of them had a high school diploma. Similarly, most the growth-oriented women entrepreneurs in Africa had an above-average level of education (e.g. completed at least high school) (GEM, 2015). The majority of women entrepreneurs in Sudan have at least a high school degree (Welsh et al., 2013). Most of them, 42%, operate in the service sector,

yet 22% work in the retail sector, about 13% in textile and fabric, 10.5% in handicrafts, and only 3% in construction. This is representative of women entrepreneurs in SSA countries as well, where more than 80% of women entrepreneurs work in the retail sector (GEM, 2015) and service sector (Kuada, 2009). For instance, in the Amhara region of Ethiopia, 38% of women's businesses are in the service sector (Solomon, 2010). In Nigeria, women in business are concentrated in the service and retail sectors (Ozigbo and Ezeaku, 2009).

In the Democratic Republic of Congo, Madagascar, and South Africa, businesswomen are most common in the textile sector, whereas in Gambia, Mauritania, Namibia, and Uganda, they operate predominantly in the service sector (Bardasi et al., 2007; McDade and Spring, 2005). The average number of working hours per week was about 65 (SD=19). This is higher than the average number of hours worked in paid employment in Ethiopia, which is 40 hours per week.

The number of working hours they put in also confirms the respondents' representativeness of entrepreneurs who work for longer hours as compared to people in a salaried job (e.g. Dijkhuizen et al., 2014; Jennings and McDougald, 2007; Parasuraman and Simmers, 2001; Wincent and Örtqvist, 2009). Therefore, it is safe to conclude that the respondents are representative of the population of women entrepreneurs in SSA countries.

3.3.2.2.Factor Analysis

The factor structure was examined using principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation. Two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 appeared, as expected based on the results of the content adequacy test. All SREs-to-ERDs conflict items had loadings > .60. The first three SREs-to-ERDs items were highly cross-loaded on more than one factor and thus rejected; this produced 15 items representing the SRE-to-ERD and ERD-to-SRE conflicts. Cronbach's alpha for the SRE-to-ERD factor was .91 and for the ERDSRE factor was .87. The two factors together explain 59.2% of the variance in the 15 items. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value for the 15 items combined was .89. The first factor, SRE-to-ERD conflict, with an eigenvalue of 5.3, explains 34.5% of

the variance, with the second factor, ERD-to-SRE conflict, with an eigenvalue of 3.5, explaining another 23.7%.

The researcher then performed a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to examine the extent to which the data fitted the theorized constructs and of dimensionality and discriminant validity. The final scale items were determined based on the highest factor loading from the best fit model (see Table 3.2). Although the model fit analysis showed significant chi-square [χ^2 (83) = 168.213, p<.01), other fit indices indicated that the items had good fit [CFI= 0.973, GFI= 0.949, NFI= 0.948, AGFI= 0.926, RMSEA= 0.05]. The estimated correlation between SRE-to-ERD conflict and ERD-to-SRE conflict is .15, indicating discriminant validity. Kline (2015), for instance, suggests that a correlation between two constructs that is higher than 0.90 represents a lack of discriminant validity; the lower the correlation value, therefore, the better the discriminant validity (Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt, 2015).

After the initial CFA model was found to fit the data well, a series of additional CFAs were conducted to compare the hypothesized model fit to alternative competing models. Four models were examined, comprising: (1) the hypothesized model consisting of two factors (SRE-to-ERD conflict and ERD-to-SRE conflict); (2) a second-order model in which one factor affects these two factors (SRE-to-ERD conflict and ERD-to-SRE conflict); (3) a unidimensional model in which all the SRE-to-ERD-conflict and ERD-to-SRE-conflict items are loaded on a single factor; and (4) a bifactor model in which two sets of latent factors (a general factor and specific types of role conflict) affect each SRE-to-ERD-conflict and ERD-to-SRE-conflict item. After comparing all the fit indices (see table 3 appendices), it was determined that the two factors model fit the data best.

Table 3.2: Standardized Factor Loading for Final Items

Final Scale Items	**Factor** Loading	**alpha**
SRE -to- ERD Conflict		0.91
You cancel your business schedules to socialize.	0.79	
You're afraid to talk about your business and yourself.	0.66	
You can't expand the business because of your social obligations.	0.63	
As a woman in business, you're afraid of being labeled a "bad woman."	0.66	
You feel guilty doing business because you can't visit with people (extended family).	0.71	
You can't behave like a businessperson because of religious obligations.	0.76	
You're afraid to compete in matters important to your business.	0.77	
You can't expand your business because you have to share the income with relatives.	0.79	
You're not proud of doing business because people do not value women in business.	0.66	
ERD -to- SRE Conflict		0.87
You can't fulfill religious obligations because of your business obligations.	0.45	
You can't live up to the expected behavior because you are on the lookout for opportunities.	0.6	
You can't enjoy social events because you think too much about business-	0.68	
You can't share your income with relatives because you want to expand the business.	0.83	
You don't have time to socialize because your business keeps you busy.	0.79	
You can't abide by the norms because you like to do things differently.	0.77	

Table 3.3: Fit Indices: Model Comparison

	Models	X2	df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA	AIC
1	Hypothesized model	168.213	83	0.949	0.926	0.97	0.95	0.05	242
2	Second-order model	472.058	117	0.9	0.854	0.907	0.881	0.086	580
3	Unidimensional model	380.5	75	0.9	0.84	0.9	0.88	0.1	471
4	Bifactor model	286.59	75	0.903	0.844	0.932	0.911	0.083	377

3.3.3.Scale evaluation: Scales' Criterion Validity

In this sub-section, the aim was to assess the criterion validity of the SRE and ERD conflict scales in relation to entrepreneurial success, while controlling for work and family conflict.

Accordingly, hypotheses on the relationship between entrepreneurial success SRE and ERD conflict were developed. Then details on how essential data for testing this relation were collected and analyzed are provided. Finally, result for criterion validity are presented.

3.3.3.1.Hypotheses

> *"Entrepreneurial success refers to facts considered as positive outcomes by the entrepreneur*" (Fisher, Maritz, and Lobo,2014:488).

Previous research, specifically studies grounded in rational economic theory, has emphasized financial success in explaining entrepreneurial success. However, the economic indicators of success do not fully capture what entrepreneurs themselves consider signs of success (Wach, Stephan, and Gorgievski, 2016). For example, most women entrepreneurs are attracted to entrepreneurship for gaining independence, self-actualization, family security, and better opportunities for advancement (e.g. Lituchy and Reavley, 2004; Srivastava, 2012).

The literature on entrepreneurial motivation also suggests that for women entrepreneurs, success is linked to motivation for starting a business (e.g. Lee and Stearns, 2012; Morris, Miyasaki, Watters, and Coombes, 2006; N. Zahra, 2013). Entrepreneurs may also keep alive a financially underperforming company because the business is fulfilling a non-financial expectation (DeTienne, Shepherd, and De Castro, 2008) or conversely forgo a profitable business because the firm does not enable them to achieve personal goals (Wach et al., 2016). Jennings and McDougald (2007) have also encouraged researchers to include non-economic indicators of business success when examining the outcomes of the work and family interface.

Therefore, entrepreneurial success is a multidimensional construct that is best captured by more than financial and economic indicators (Fisher et al., 2014). Wach et al. (2016) developed various indicators of success which include firm performance,

workplace relationships, personal fulfillment, community impact, and personal financial rewards. The multidimensional success factors were further categorized as subjective financial success and subjective personal success by Dijkhuizen, et al. (2016). The subjective financial success is related to income and finance, whereas the subjective personal success, centered around personal development and other non-financial goals of the entrepreneur (Dej 2010).

According to Dej (2010) success indicators can be grouped into financial, linked to money, and personal success which is non-financial. Therefore, subjective financial success includes firm performance (e.g. turnover) and personal financial rewards (family income). The subjective non-financial success is workplace relationships (e.g. strong customer relationship), community impact (e.g. social recognition) and personal fulfillment (e.g. personal development). In this thesis, the researcher extends the knowledge of subjective entrepreneurial success by examining the multidimensional construct of success from Wach et al. (2016) which further categorized as financial and personal success by Dijkhuizen, et al. (2016).

Studies to date have produced mixed results on the relationship between work and family conflict and job performance in paid employment. Some (e.g. Ahmad, 2008; Anwar and Shahzad, 2011; Nohe et al., 2014; Wang and Tsai, 2014) have found a significant negative relationship, while others (e.g. Bhuian, Menguc, and Borsboom, 2005; Mete, Ünal, and Bilen, 2014; Patel, Govender, Paruk, and Ramgoon, 2006) have found a non-significant relationship. For self-employment, Jennings and McDougald (2007) argued that work and family conflict can directly affect business performance. In addition, Shelton (2006) has argued that work and family conflict affects venture performance indirectly. Shelton, Danes, and Eisenman (2008) found that a difficulty in managing work-family conflict negatively influences business performance. Moreover, Parasuraman, Purohit, Godshalk, and Beutell (1996) and Lee Siew Kim and Seow Ling (2001) found that

enterprenurial success negatively related to work and family conflict. Since most of the studies tend to support a relationship between work and family conflict and performance, the following hypotheses were made:

Hypothesis 1: F-to-W conflict is negatively related to financial and non-financial success.

Hypothesis 2: W-to-F conflict is negatively related to financial and non-financial success.

In the work-and-family-conflict literature, the notion is that role conflict negatively affects performance. The scale measurement result (see. 3.5.1 and table 3.2.) suggested that women entrepreneurs in SSA experience conflict between their SREs and ERDs as they try to meet business role demands and live up to the expectations in society. Hence, it could be expected that in addition to the effect of work and family conflict on entrepreneurial performance, SRE, and ERD conflict affects entrepreneurial performance. This led to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3: SRE -to- ERD conflict is negatively related to financial and non-financial success.

Hypothesis 4: ERD -to- SRE conflict is negatively related to financial and non-financial success.

Hypothesis 5: SRE -to- ERD and ERD -to- SRE conflicts contribute to variances in entrepreneurial performance on top of F- to- W and W- to- F conflicts.

3.3.3.2.Procedure and Participants

To minimize common method bias, it was decided to collect data at two points in time (e.g. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff, 2003). The first questionnaire, which was filled in between September and November 2016 as part of the first step (i.e., the measurement study), addressed variables of SRE and ERD conflict, variables of work and

family conflict, and demographic variables. During the first stage of data collection (between September and November 2016), respondents were asked if they had a willingness to participate in a second survey.

Out of the 500 initial participants, 390 agreed to participate and provided their detailed contact information. Those 390 participants were contacted again for the second survey (first week of December 2016) to fill in the questionnaire in paper that addressed variables of entrepreneurial performance. By the middle of January 2017, data on entrepreneurial performance had been collected from 350 of the participants who had completed the first survey. The same procedure in Study 1 was followed for managing the data. Ultimately, 307 completed questionnaires were used for the criterion validity analysis.

3.3.3.3.Measures

Except for the variables that represent the SRE-and-ERD-conflict scale items, all variables in this study were assessed by measures drawn from previous research (e.g. Carlson et al., 2000).

Entrepreneurial success

Entrepreneurial success was measured according to items of subjective success outlined in Dej (2011), Fisher, Maritz, and Lobo (2014), and Wach et al. (2016). These are: "firm performance" (e.g. profitability); "workplace relationships" (e.g. strong customer relationships); "personal fulfillment" (e.g. work-life balance); "social impact" (e.g. social recognition); and "personal financial rewards" (e.g. capacity to buy). For each of these five factors, respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they had reached the stated criteria. Each answer was measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "totally not achieved" (1) to "totally achieved" (5). To select final items for this study, a validation study was conducted using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) for model-fit.

The CFA covered 17 entrepreneurial success measures and comprised five factors. The fit of the items per factor was confirmed through CFA. Although the chi-square result was significant [$\chi 2$ (241) = 473.666, p<.01), other fit indices indicated that the items had good fit [CFI= .931, GFI= .886, NFI= .869, AGFI=.858, RMSEA= .056]. The final factor loadings and Cronbach's alphas are presented in Table 3.4. As indicated in Table 3.5, there are no validity concerns. According to Hair Jnr, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010) the threshold for reliability is achieved when composite reliability (CR) > 0.7; average variance extracted (AVE) values for convergent validity > 0.5; maximum shared variance (MSV) for discriminant validity < AVE; average shared variance (ASV) < AVE; and the square root of AVE is greater than inter-construct correlations.

Table 3.4: Standardized Factor Loadings for Final Scale Items

Final Scale Items	Factor Loading	Alpha
Firm Performance (FP)		**0.88**
Firm profitability	0.77	
Turnover	0.71	
Innovation (e.g. new products, services, or methods)	0.78	
Growth in the number of employees	0.78	
Workplace relationship		**0.75**
Strong customer relationships	0.77	
Employee satisfaction	0.73	
Supportive firm culture (e.g. strong firm values and positive attitudes)	0.72	
Personal Fulfillment		**0.82**
Work-life balance	0.83	
Own decision-making	0.82	
Propagate own vision	0.81	
Personal relationships and maintain networks	0.82	
Social Impact		**0.85**
Social recognition (e.g. reputation)	0.81	
Social responsibility towards employees	0.84	
Participation in public activities (e.g. sponsor of social events)	0.81	

Personal Financial Rewards		**0.86**
Personal financial security	0.84	
Ability to afford	0.83	
High income for your family	0.79	

Table 3.5: Convergent and Discriminant Validity Test

	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)	SI	FP	WR	PF	PFR
SI	0.856	0.578	0.17	0.866	0.707				
FP	0.881	0.515	0.17	0.934	0.412	0.718			
WR	0.76	0.514	0.449	0.946	0.355	0.35	0.717		
PF	0.829	0.554	0.121	0.959	0.187	0.325	0.348	0.744	
PFR	0.857	0.602	0.449	0.968	0.405	0.2	0.67	0.25	0.776

CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted; MSV = maximum shared variance; MaxR(H) = maximum reliability; (H)

The above-validated success indicators were categorized into two factors: subjective financial success and subjective non-financial success following Dej (2010) and Dijkhuizen, et al. (2016). The subjective financial success includes firm performance and personal financial rewards. Subjective non-financial success is workplace relationships, personal fulfillment, and social impact.

The fit of the two factors model to the data was tested using CFA. The fit statistics indices results are CFI=.985, AGFI=.956, NFI=.965, and RMSEA=.046. According to Hooper, Coughlan and Mullen (2008), CFI>=.95, AGFI >.90; NFI.>= .95 and RMSEA <=.06 are recognized as indicative of good fit. Therefore, the proposed two-factor model fit to the data. Discriminant and Convergent Validity Test was also conducted, and result presented in table 3.6. According to Hair et al. (2010) validity threshold, reliability is achieved when composite reliability (CR) > 0.7 and convergent validity is average variance extracted (AVE) and > 0.5; discriminant validity is achieved when maximum shared variance and (MSV) < AVE. Taking these thresholds into account, there are no validity issues in the proposed two factors model.

Table 3. 6.. Discriminant and Convergent Validity Test for subjective Financial and Non-financial Success

	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)	Financial Success	Non-financial Success
Financial Success	0.876	0.632	0.24	0.971	**0.883**	
Non-financial Success	0.922	0.587	0.18	0.872	0.5	**0.84**

Work and Family Role Conflict

Work and family role conflict was measured using the Work-Family Conflict Scale developed by Carlson et al. (2000). This scale measures six dimensions of work-family conflict using three items for each. The dimensions are (1) time-based work interference with family, (2) time-based family interference with work, (3) strain-based work interference with family, (4) strain-based family interference with work, (5) behavior-based work interference with family, and (6) behavior-based family interference with work. Some items were re-worded to fit the entrepreneurs' context. For example, "my business keeps me from my family activities more than I would like." The items were measured on a five-point Likert-direction scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). The Cronbach's alpha, in this case, was .90 for the nine items representing WF conflict and .91 for the nine items rep-resenting FW conflict.

Control Variables

Business age, business size, and education were controlled. Younger firms are less profitable, less competitive, and more likely to fail than older firms (Robb and Watson, 2012). In addition, studies have indicated that human capital, such as education and experience, positively and significantly influence business performance (Robb and

Watson, 2012). Business age was measured by the number of years since the firm was established; size was measured by the number of employees, and education was measured by the level of education attained by the respondents.

3.3.3.4.Data Analysis

The general relationship among the study variables was computed using Pearson correlations coefficients. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to test Hypothesis 5 (see. Table 3.8). Model one includes control variables; in model two, work and family conflict variables were added to see the change in the dependent variables; in model three, SREs and ERDs conflict variables were added to see if SREs and ERDs can contribute to the variance in the dependent variables.

3.3.3.5. Results

Table 3.7 presents the descriptive statistics for the variables used in the analysis. The result shows that the means are fairly centered on the five-point Likert scales. F-to-W conflict was found to be significantly negatively correlated with both financial and non-financial success, with value -.470 and -.520 respectively. Whereas W-to-F conflict is significantly positively related financial success with value .322, but the relationship with non-financial success non-significant. Therefore hypotheses 1 is confirmed and hypothesis 2 is not. SRE -to- ERD conflict was significantly negatively correlated with both financial and non-financial success, with value -.482 and -.387 respectively. Whereas, whereas ERD -to- SRE conflict is significantly and positively correlated with financial success, with a value of .382, but negatively and significantly correlated with non-financial success with a value of -.204. Therefore, Hypotheses 3 is fully confirmed, while 4 is partially confirmed.

Hierarchical multiple linear regressions were conducted (see Table 3.8.) to investigate the unique contribution of SRE and ERD conflict. Adding the SRE -to- ERD conflict Model 3 significantly increased the variance in both financial and non-financial

success, but the addition of ERD -to- SRE conflict to the model did significantly change the variance in both financial and non-financial success.

Table 3.7: Mean (M), Standard Deviation (SD), and Correlations among the Study Variables (N=307)

	M	SD	Financial success	Non-financial success	SREs-to-ERDs	ERDs-to-SREs	W-to-F	F-to-W	Education	business age	size
Financial success	3.5	0.73									
Non-financial success	3.6	0.65	.523**								
SREs-to-ERDs	2.5	0.64	-.482**	-.384**							
ERDs-to-SREs	2.8	0.34	.382**	-.204**	.261**						
W-to-F	2.7	0.67	.302**	-0.151	.593**	.261**					
F-to-W	2.7	0.74	-.470**	-.320**	.438**	.294**	.647**				
Education	2.49	0.91	.297**	.314**	-.221**	-.238**	-.303**	-.293**			
business age	7	4.3	.514**	.507**	-.877**	.048**	-.354**	-.423**	.304**		
size	13	12	.489**	.392**	-.395**	-.509**	-.580**	-.585**	.288**	.338**	

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 3.8: Linear Regression Analysis of the Five Dimensions of Entrepreneurial Performance

	R2	R2	Bus.Age	Size	Edu.	F-toW	W-to-F	ERD-to-SRE	SRE-to-ERD
Financial success									
Model 1	0.429**	0.184**	0.329**	0.281**	0.188*				
Model2	0.488**	0.238**	0.342**	0.268**	.134	-0.589**	.155		
Model 3	0.543**	0.293**	0.208**	0.198**	.099	-0.588**	.169	.165	-0.528**
Non-financial Success									
Model 1	0.519**	0.269**	0.423**	.138	0.19**				
Model 2	0.535*	0.286**	.120	.120	.138	-0.325**	-.100		
Model 3	0.545*	0.297**	.116	0.175*	.142	-0.268**	-.105	.033	-0.243**

3.4. Concluding remarks

In this chapter a scale to capture and measure bi-directional conflict between SREs and ERDs was constructed and validated. The scale was composed of new items developed specifically for this study from a literature review of social role expectations (SREs) in the SSA context, entrepreneurial role demands (ERDs), and a case study. Content adequacy and subsequently confirmatory factor analyses were performed on the items. This yielded 15 items with two sub-scales that measuring two different dimensions of SRE and ERD conflict: SRE -to- ERD conflict (9 items) and ERD -to- SRE (6 items) conflict. Each scale showed discriminant validity and internal consistency, thus confirming the bidirectional nature of the role conflict.

The criterion validity of the ERD -to- SRE conflict and SRE -to- ERD conflict scales was investigated in relation to subjective financial and non-financial success. The scale for SRE-to-ERD conflict was significantly negatively correlated with the financial and non-financial success. This is in line with most of the previous studies on the relationship between role conflict and job success. The hierarchical multiple linear regression analyses also confirmed the unique contribution of SRE-to-ERD conflict in the variance of both financial and non-financial entrepreneurial success. The result shows that interference of social role expectation with entrepreneurial role demands negatively affect entrepreneurial success. This may be because the socio-cultural factors in the SSA context do not favor women in economic activities and women respond to social role expectation leaving their business behind.

However, the scale for ERD-to- SRE conflict was significantly positively correlated with financial success but the relationship with non-financial success is negative and significant. The result shows that when entrepreneurial demands interfere with social role expectation, women who respond to entrepreneurial role have better financial return but

can't fulfill the social role expectations, hence negatively affect non-financial subjective success. According to the social role theory, individuals who fail to portray the socially expected role of their gender face social sanction and disrupt their social interaction. As a result, although women are effective in entrepreneurship and get a better financial return, they can be devalued and loss social recognition for not favoring the social expectations and using stereotypically masculine approaches in their business. Thus, non-financial success such as work-life balance, social recognition, personal relationships, and network-building as identified in this study can negatively be affected.

The findings in this chapter show the importance of SRE and ERD conflict in explaining subjective entrepreneurial success on top of the work-and-family-conflict. The literature on role conflict among women entrepreneurs in SSA should, therefore, incorporate SRE and ERD conflict, along with the standard items for measuring work and family conflict. The SRE and ERD conflict scales developed for the current study can also be used in programs that aim to address women's economic empowerment through enterprise development in developing countries to trace the potential challenges of role conflict. Our findings show a significant relationship between SRE-to-ERD conflict and subjective financial and non-financial success. Hence, if women entrepreneurs are enabled to address social role expectations, they have a better chance of surviving and growing their business. Although not significant as with SRE -to-ERDs conflict in terms of its unique contribution in explaining success the relationship between ERDs -to- SREs conflict and subjective entrepreneurial success is important. Hence, further study in a different context may prove this relationship.

One of the limitations of the research reported in this chapter is that a subsample of the respondents used to measure SRE and ERD conflict was also used for the criterion validity measures, whereas a different sample would have been better for validity. To minimize the limitations associated with this, different SSA countries were considered in

determining the scope and constructing the scales. Because of financial limitation, however, the scales were tested in a single country, Ethiopia, mainly among formally registered women entrepreneurs in major cities. Hence, in order to examine the generalizability of our findings with regard to the reliability and validity of the scale and its cross-cultural stability, future research is needed to test and analyze the SRE and ERD conflict scale in other countries and among women entrepreneurs in different countries. Despite these limitations, the work has contributed to the knowledge of role conflict for women entrepreneurs by adding the concept of SRE and ERD conflict to the existing work-and-family-conflict literature.

Chapter 4

How Do Female Entrepreneurs Cope with Role Conflict at Different Stages of Business? Evidence from Ethiopia[7]

[7] A version of this chapter has been accepted for publication in the *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*.

4.1. Introduction

Work flexibility is a key motive for self-employment (DeMartino and Barbato, 2003; Patterson and Mavin, 2009). However, role conflict has been identified as a major concern for women entrepreneurs to grow and expand their business (Clark et al., 2014; Rehman and Azam Roomi, 2012). This is because women entrepreneurs may use the flexibility to balance multiple roles rather than investing time in their venture (Loscocco and Leicht, 1993). Adema et al. (2014) found that women frequently divide their time between working and caring activities; as a result, their businesses remain smaller and they operate in a limited range of sectors.

Women entrepreneurs face perhaps even more intense role conflicts than women in wage employment 2007; Patterson and Mavin, 2009). This may be because entrepreneurial activities demand greater individual effort than a paid job (Brodsky, 1993). Specifically, entrepreneurial activities require long hours of work (Lee Siew Kim and Seow Ling, 2001). Also, most women entrepreneurs may have to do with less support compared to women in wage employment, who may benefit from an organization's infrastructure (Patterson and Mavin, 2009). Longer hours of work with less support can increase the potential conflict that women face in being an entrepreneur and being a caretaker of the family (König and Cesinger, 2015; Perrons, 2003)

In Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) this role conflict may be particularly strong. As was reported in chapters two and three of this thesis, women entrepreneurs in SSA experience role conflict due to their roles as business owners, family members and members of society.

As a result of these role conflicts, women entrepreneurs need to adopt coping strategies to manage the demands of these multiple roles and social expectations (Clark et al., 2014). A "coping strategy is the process of managing taxing circumstances, expending

efforts to solve personal and interpersonal problems, seeking to master, minimize, reduce or tolerate stress induced by unpleasant and stressful situations" (Drnovsek et al., 2010: 194).

Although a number of studies have examined coping strategies for dealing with stress, less attention has been given to the analysis of the coping strategies in the case of role conflict (Clark et al., 2014; Eby et al., 2005; Thompson, Poelmans, Allen, and Andreassi, 2007). For instance, in their review, Eby et al. (2005) found that less than 1 % of studies examined the coping strategies used for work and family conflict. Of the few studies that have examined the coping strategies used by women entrepreneurs (e.g. Jennings and McDougald, 2007; Shelton, 2006), the majority have dealt with developed countries[2].

The relatively few studies that deal with entrepreneurs' coping strategies largely suffer from the weakness in that they have treated coping strategies as static (Thompson et al., 2007), despite the fact that entrepreneurship is a dynamic process. As was reported in chapter 2 of this thesis, coping strategies can differ based on the stage of business. In the rest of this chapter it is argued that strategies for coping with role conflict will differ based on the stage of business, and moreover that this relationship can be mediated by personal resources.

The key research questions that this chapter will try to answer therefore, are: How do the choice of strategies for coping with role conflict differ at different stages of business? how do personal resources of a woman entrepreneur moderate the relationship between stage of business and strategies for coping with role conflict?

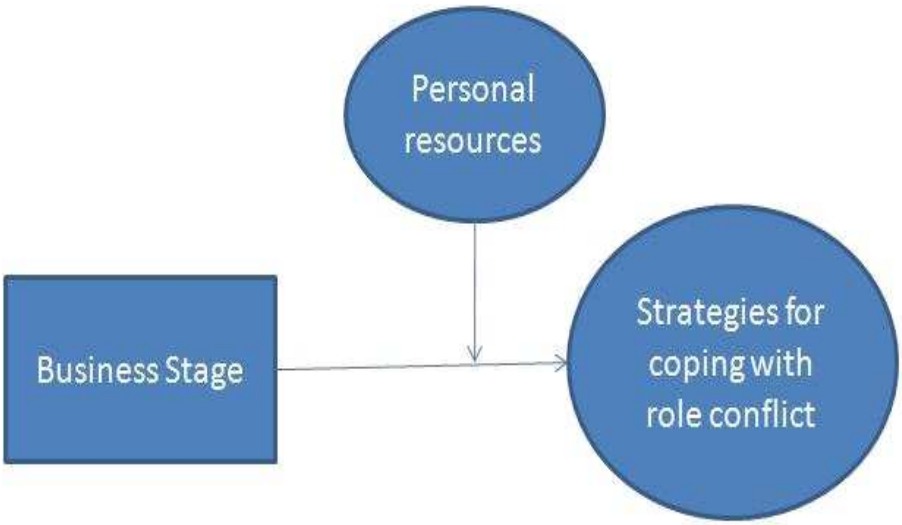


Figure 4. 1: Conceptual Model of the Study

The rest of the chapter is structured as follows. First the links between coping strategies, business stages, and personal resources are discussed based on a study of relevant literature. Based on this literature study, hypotheses were developed and presented in the empirical section study section. Then details on the procedures, methods, analysis and results are presented. Finally, concluding remarks and limitations for future research are made.

4.2. Relevant Literature

In this section, relevant literature on coping strategies, business stages and personal resources are reviewed. The purpose is to inform the empirical study that follows in section 4.3.

4.2.1. Coping Strategies

According to Higgins et al. (2008) studies of coping have concentrated on the responses to catastrophic events, such as unemployment, disease, death, family separation and bankruptcy. Scholars have also acknowledged coping strategies in response to 'normative'

stressors that occur slowly and persistently, such as work and family conflict (Adisa, et al. 2016). Although research has focused on coping strategies, there are only few studies on coping strategies specific to role conflict (Clark et al., 2014; Eby et al., 2005; Thompson, Poelmans, Allen, and Andreassi, 2007).

The two major theories about coping strategies were developed by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) and Hall (1972). Lazarus and Folkman's typology has subsequently been adopted in what is known as *problem-focused* and *emotion-focused* coping (Örtqvist et al., 2007).

Problem-focused coping is active and involves putting effort into controlling and resolving a stressful situation, whereas emotion-focused coping is passive and involves adapting one's emotions to a stressful situation. More recent studies, however, showed that the predictive power of Lazarus and Folkman's typology of coping was somewhat limited with regard to role conflict, requiring more attention on coping styles particular to role conflict (e.g. Clark et al., 2014; Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2012; Thompson et al., 2007).

A number of researchers (e.g. Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2007, 2012) adopted Hall (1972)'s model of coping in the context of role conflict, which identifies three specific types. The first is structural role redefinition (Type I). This involves effectively negotiating and communicating with others to set new expectations and minimize role conflict. For example, by negotiating with or confronting clients, business partners, family members, and members of their social networks, entrepreneurs can alter the role expectations imposed on them (e.g. Boyd and Gumpert, 1983; Örtqvist et al., 2007). An example of this might be negotiating with clients about the time for delivering an order or the quality expected (Boyd and Gumpert, 1983).

The second type of coping is personal role redefinition (Type II), which involves altering one's attitudes and perceptions of role expectations rather than trying to alter the

role senders' expectations. In this form of coping, entrepreneurs can change the priorities of various role demands, dismiss planned activities, and refuse additional responsibilities (Lang and Markowitz, 1986; Örtqvist et al., 2007). For example, entrepreneurs might decline additional business orders from clients.

The third type of coping is reactive role behavior (Type III), which attempts to meet all role expectations. In this type of coping, entrepreneurs work harder and longer to meet all the role expectations imposed on them (Lang and Markowitz, 1986; Örtqvist et al., 2007). To do this, entrepreneurs need to plan, schedule, and organize tasks efficiently to finish in a timely manner. Örtqvist et al. (2007) added a passive role behavior coping mechanism to Hall's (1972) model. Passive role behavior involves diverting attention when meeting role demands, when either structural or personal role redefinition or reactive role behavior becomes impossible (Boyd and Gumpert, 1983; Lang and Markowitz, 1986; Örtqvist et al., 2007). For example, entrepreneurs may take a vacation when the experience of role conflict becomes overwhelming.

In the second chapter, nine different types of strategies for coping with the role conflict were identified among women entrepreneurs in Ethiopia. These include:

1) Discussions with role senders (i.e., negotiating and challenging social roles)
2) Seeking social support
3) Hiring outside help
4) Prioritizing entrepreneurial roles
5) Prioritizing family and social role expectations
6) Planning and scheduling to work harder and longer
7) Integrating roles
8) Reacting to all roles
9) Taking no conscious effort to meet role demands

These coping strategies have a common underlying factor representing each of the three-coping topologies of Hall (1972) as discussed below.

Structural Role Redefinition (Type I): involves redefining the role expectations of others so that fewer conflicting demands are placed upon individuals (Hall, 1972). This among other things includes communication, negotiation, and delegations to change to a new set of expectations which are agreed on. The goal of type I coping is reducing conflicting role demands imposed on an individual by involving others. Accordingly, the three coping strategies identified in chapter 2 including discussing with the role senders such as negotiation and challenging the societal role definitions, seeking social support and hiring outside help can be categorized under Type I Coping.

Personal Role Redefinition (Type II): this involves individuals changing their own perceptions of role demands rather than trying to change their environment. The actual expectations or behavior of others may remain unchanged, but the way individuals see their own behavior or the external expectations in a different light. This is about what individuals decide to cope with role conflict without involving others. One of the key categories is establishing priorities for roles or within roles. In the second chapter it was found that women entrepreneurs in Ethiopia either prioritize their business role or their social role depending on different factors. Unlike Hall's topology, these two categories cannot be combined to measure a single construct (i.e., personal role redefinition), since it involves selecting from two opposite domains. Therefore, the two coping topologies: prioritize entrepreneurial roles and prioritize family and social role expectations are treated independently in this chapter.

Reactive role behavior (Type III): this involves efforts to fulfill all the role expectations experienced or attempting to do everything rather than attempting to reduce the role demands. According to Hall (1972) activities such as planning, scheduling, and organization, working harder and longer, and taking no conscious effort categorized as Type III coping. Accordingly, reacting to all roles, plan and schedule, work harder and

longer, integrate roles and no conscious effort to meet role demands are categorized as Type III coping.

Therefore, we follow the coping topologies categorization based on Hall (1972), modified by the finding from chapter two that women entrepreneurs in Ethiopia cope with role conflict by using: structural role redefinition such as discussions with role senders and challenging social roles, seeking social support and hiring outside help. They also prioritize entrepreneurial roles or prioritize family and social role expectations. Besides, they try to fulfill all the role demands by using reactive role behavior. Accordingly, the four coping categories are considered in this chapter are Structural Role Redefinition, Prioritizing Entrepreneurial Roles, Prioritizing Family and Social Roles; and Reactive Role behavior.

Different factors influencing coping strategies have been discussed in the literature. These include availability of support from family (Carr and Hmieleski, 2015); communication within family (Clark, 2000); family responsibilities (Jennings and McDougald, 2007; Winn, 2004); gender (Jennings and McDougald, 2007); level of work flexibility (Ashforth et al., 2000); capital (Drnovsek et al., 2010); experience (Uy, Foo, and Song, 2013); and role salience (Akanji, 2012; Kreiner, 2006; Wincent and Örtqvist, 2009). These previous studies have treated coping strategies as static, whereas entrepreneurship is a dynamic process (Fuller and Warren, 2006; Steyaert, 2007). Entrepreneurs face different challenges at different stages of development (Gruber,2002). The dynamic nature of entrepreneurial activities influences entrepreneurial behavior, change in importance, based on the activity the entrepreneur would involve in the process of enterprise development (Wasdani and Mathew,2014). These can influence the selection of strategies for coping with role conflict. In addition, role-related expectations are subject to change (Wood and Eagly, 2012) which demand different ways of coping at a different

time. Therefore, the choice of a coping strategy can be influenced by stages of business where entrepreneurs are active.

4.2.2. Business stage

Entrepreneurs go through business stages having with its own characteristics (Scott and Bruce, 1987; Levie and Lichtenstein, 2010). According to Lewis and Churchill (1983) understanding the business stages is important for the following reasons:

1) Although businesses vary in size, incapacity for growth, in structures and management styles, they experience common problems rising at similar stages in their development.
2) Understanding of the specific stage, helps entrepreneurs to assess the current and future challenges.
3) It helps to anticipate key requirements at various points, e.g. the excessive time commitment for owners at the start stage and the requirement for delegation and changes in managerial roles when businesses become larger and more complex.
4) It provides the basis for evaluating the impact of present and future governmental regulations and policies on one's business.
5) It helps accountants and consultants to effectively identify difficulties and corresponding solutions to enterprises.

The literature differs on the number of stages that are identified; three-stage models to five or more stages models have been proposed (Levie and Lichtenstein, 2010). For example, Klyver and Hindle (2007) analyzed the role of social networks at three stage of business: (1) discovery stage, where entrepreneurs try to identify opportunity; (2) start-up stage, where entrepreneurs actively trying to start a business; (3) young business stage: where entrepreneurs run young businesses and try to make their business sustainable.

Webb, Ireland, Hitt, Kistruck, and Tihanyi (2011) identify four stages: (1) Alertness: at this stage entrepreneurs are motivated to create an image of their future enterprise; (2) Opportunity recognition: the stage where entrepreneurs process ideas and make sense by discussing ideas with others regarding the attractiveness and feasibility of the opportunity; (3) Innovation: internal development and adoption stage where entrepreneurs introduce or adopt a new product; and (4) Opportunity exploitation: where new business is created with a focus on business models, resource management, and founding effects.

Baron and Shane (2005) identifies six stages, including recognition of an opportunity; the decision to start a business; assembling the resources; the launch of the new business; building a successful business and harvesting the rewards.

Although criticized, the business stage approach is the most frequent theoretical approach to understand entrepreneurial business growth (Levie and Lichtenstein, 2010). As indicated above, there is variation in terms of the number of business stages among scholars.

Understanding the business stage is vital to examine the dynamic nature of coping strategies. It is well-demonstrated that role-related expectations are dynamic (Taminiau and Heusinkveld, 2017), and empirical evidence support that roles and associated expectations are subject to change (Bechky, 2006; Danna Lynch, 2007). It is possible, therefore, that women entrepreneurs rely on different types of coping strategies in different stages of business.

The five-stage approach was adopted in the second chapter of this thesis, as it was easier to classify the small sample size based on the characteristic of each stage as described in the literature. However, in this chapter, given the large sample size and nature of research design, the classification to the various stages is adapted from GEM as it was convenient to use and has been used in previous survey research (e.g. Arenius and Minniti

2005; Hindle and Klyver 2007). GEM classifies entrepreneurs into three groups based on the stage of their business: nascent, new entrepreneurs, and established business owners. Owners of a business that was less than three months' old are categorized as nascent; owners of a business between three and 42 months' old are categorized as new business owners (start-up stage); and owners of a business older than 42 months are categorized as established business owners.

The process of starting a business is demanding, and entrepreneurs have to do several activities to meet the different requirements (Wincent et al., 2008). The transformation into new ventures also poses a special challenge on founders, and they have to deal with the usual day-to-day business operations and in parallel have to build a viable organization. But entrepreneurs at their early stage have limited experience and resources (Bergmann and Stephan, 2013). They also need to devote attention and effort to conduct preliminary marketing, look for financial resources, and establish business networks (Leaptrott, 2009). Moreover, entrepreneurs at this stage tend to function in more dynamic and emerging markets and face challenging competitive pressures (Gruber,2002). Over commitment, therefore, is key for early-stage entrepreneurs who are excited to chase their goals and willing to invest what it takes to succeed (Wolf, 2016). For example, the startup stage is about existence and survival and the entrepreneurs work long hours and do all the required activities in order to prove their idea and access resources (Wolf, 2016). However, early stage entrepreneurs are often single, or part of a small team and it is up to the owners to put efforts into fulfilling the different role demands that are placed on them all at once (Hoang and Gimeno, 2010). Yet, Sang-Suk and Denslow (2004) found that women entrepreneurs tend to be reluctant to delegate responsibility during the early stage of their business.

Moreover, early-stage entrepreneurs may not have yet proven successful enough to obtain the required support. For instance, Gruber (2002)has indicated that new

businesses often lack the access, links, reputation, experience, and legitimacy required to establish trust and credibility compared to established business. Similarly, Harrison, Newman and Roth (2006) mention that "outsiders do not 'trust' new organizations and make requirements of the business that create stress in its fragile condition." Therefore, early-stage entrepreneurs such as nascent and new entrepreneurs may not access social support as compared to established business owners, who may already get recognition for their success. As a result, when nascent and new entrepreneurs experience role conflict, they may tend to react to all roles by themselves rather than delegating to others through hiring or seeking social support.

Balancing work and private life is one of the main reasons for women starting a business (Patterson and Mavin, 2009); and women in the early stage of their business, may be more enthusiastic about meeting their family role and other social role demands, than meeting their business role demands. In addition, in the SSA context, gender role characteristics of the loving, nurturing mother and domestic home-maker, social relations and togetherness are valued most (Mazonde and Carmichael, 2016). As a result, women entrepreneurs who are at an early stage of business may not afford to focus on family and social role when the conflict between these roles and business owner role occur. For example, as it was discussed in the chapter 2 that fulfilling social role expectations are important for women entrepreneurs in Ethiopia, mainly at an early stage.

Established businesses eventually become more independent (Cardon et al., 2005), with owners tending to delegate some of their responsibilities (Leaptrott, 2009). As a result, established business owners may have more flexible schedules, along with the greater experience, resources, and capacity needed to manage multiple roles. The challenges at this stage are related to concern from stakeholders about the future of the business and managing success (Harvey and Evans, 1994), this demands effective communication and negotiations. Owners of established businesses are also more

experienced and in a better position in terms of financial, human, and social capital than those at their early stages. Moreover, a delegation of owner responsibilities is important for the effectiveness of management of the well-established business. Hence, established business owners may face the necessity and have the capacity to delegate their responsibilities by hiring an additional team.

In addition, unlike the early stage businesses, which need to acquire necessary resources from other parties, established businesses already possess most of the resources required for their business (Cardon et al., 2005), and may not be significantly affected by the social sanctions for not fulfilling the social role expectations of putting family and social role first. This is also because owners of the established business may have proven the success of their business idea; which can give them the confidence to communicate and negotiate with others and attract social support for unmet role expectations.

Although novice, startups and established business owners could differ in terms of their coping strategies, these differences may not only be attributed to the business stage. For example, the work context is vital but not sufficient for explaining coping strategies (Byron 2005; Ford, Heinen, and Langkamer 2007; Xanthopoulou et al. 2007). Individual differences such as personal resources can also influence people's response to role conflict.

4.2.3. Personal resources

An individual's coping capacity is highly influenced by the resources available to him or her (Lazarus and Folkman,1984). The coping process starts with cognitive appraisal where an individual evaluates whether an event is stressful or not; and secondary appraisal, where he or she evaluates coping resources and options. Hence, coping resources precede and influence coping strategies (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). For example, Westman (2004) found that each coping strategy depends on both obtaining new resources and protecting the loss of resources. According to Terry (1991), coping resources can be

categorized as: personal resources are relatively stable personality and cognitive characteristics that shape coping processes, and environmental resources are relevant aspects of the physical and social environment.

Van den Heuvel, et al., (2010:129) defines personal resources as a "lower-order, cognitive-affective aspect of personality; developable system[s] of positive beliefs about one's self (e.g. self-esteem, self-efficacy, mastery) and the world (e.g. optimism, faith) which motivate and facilitate goal attainment, even in the face of adversity or challenge." It also enables a person to more easily cope with dynamic and demanding life conditions (Hobfoll, 2002).

For Van den Heuvel and associates, researchers tend to use the concepts 'personal resources', 'Psychological capital', 'personal coping' and 'general resistance resources' interchangeably. However, in this thesis, the concept of personal resources is used due to its ability to facilitate goal attainment in the face of adversity (Van den Heuvel et al., 2010). For us, personal resources refer to "aspects of the self that is generally linked to resiliency and refer to individuals' sense of their ability to control and impact upon their environment successfully" (Xanthopoulou, et al., 2007:124).

Personal resources are the key resources widely recognized in the coping literature (Rabenu and Yaniv, 2017). For instance, Hobfoll (2002) indicates that individuals seek to acquire and maintain personal resources to use them in stressful situations, such as role conflict. Braunstein-Bercovitz, Frish-Burstein, and Benjamin (2012) say that personal resources can help a person manage work-family conflict. Boudrias et al. (2014) show that personal resources enable individuals to use active coping strategies and behave in manners that positively control their day-to-day circumstances. Moreover, Van den Heuvel et al. (2010) state that individuals with a higher level of optimism tend to seek out social support. Lent (2004) indicates that personal dispositions influence how people assess work demands and available support, choice of coping strategy and possible

consequences. Houle, Chiocchio, Favreau, and Villeneuve (2012) also find that self-efficacy significantly affects work and family conflict.

Van den Heuvel et al. (2010) identify six forms of personal resources: optimism, hope, resilience, self-efficacy, meaning-making and self-regulatory focus. Researchers also consider self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience as key personal resources (Jensen, 2008). However, this study is limited to the three typical personal resources considered by Hobfoll (2002) and Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) as fundamental to individual adaptability. These are resilience, optimism, and self-efficacy (having confidence). Resilience enables a person to recover from difficulty; it derives from a high sense of self-efficacy and a propensity to assess stressful circumstances as challenging but not threatening (Boudrias et al. 2014). Besides, hope is almost similar to optimism (Juhdi, Hamid, Rizal, and Juhdi, 2015). Optimism refers to a tendency for being optimistic about outcomes in life, which enhances the likelihood of taking action and dealing with damaging circumstances (Xanthopoulou, et at., 2007). Self-efficacy refers to judgments regarding one's own ability to perform across different situations or a tendency to view oneself as competent to fulfill job demands in a broad array of contexts (Chen, Gully, and Eden 2001). These kinds of personal resources are vital for successful coping and favorable health behaviors.

To date, personal resources have been considered as a predictor variable (e.g. Xanthopoulou et al. 2007), moderator between environment and work outcomes (e.g. Luthans et al. 2006; Mäkikangas, Feldt, Kinnunen, and Mauno 2013; Xanthopoulou et al. 2007), and/or mediator variable (Van den Heuvel et al. 2010). In this study, we consider the moderating effect of personal resources on the relation between business stages and coping strategies. Accordingly, we assume that the differences between novice, startup and established business owners in terms of their strategies to cope with role conflict can differ for different levels of personal resources.

Having high personal resources means having self-efficacy, being optimistic and resilient (Juhdi, Hamid, Rizal and Juhdi, 2015). An individual with high self-efficacy more likely puts extra effort in completing a challenging task (Lope Pihie and Bagheri 2012). Being optimistic helps entrepreneurs to delay short-term satisfaction in order to achieve the long-term goal (Juhdi, et al., 2015), while resilience helps entrepreneurs to focus on their works regardless of adversity and uncertainty. Altogether, self-efficacy, optimism and resilience are personal resources, which strengthen entrepreneurial behaviors and enhance work engagement (Juhdi, et al., 2015). Hence, entrepreneurs with a high level of personal resources put all their efforts to fulfill all of their responsibilities as business owners. In addition, people with a high level of resources have the confidence and the capacity to effectively to communicate, delegate their roles, and negotiate with others to redefine the role expectation. Moreover, when they have to prioritize between roles dues to the role conflict, entrepreneurs with high personal resources may focus more on entrepreneurial roles.

4.3.Empirical study

In this section, a number of hypotheses are set out, the methods to test these described, and the results presented.

4.3.1. Hypotheses

Based on the literature study in section 4.2, it can therefore be hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 1: As compared to established business owners, nascent and new business owners more often use reactive role behavior (Type III) as strategies to cope with role conflict.

and

Hypothesis 2: As compared to established business owners, when nascent and new business owners need to prioritize between roles due to role conflict, they prioritize family and social roles more often than entrepreneurial roles.

and that

Hypothesis 3: As compared to the nascent and new business owners, established business owners more often use structural role redefinitions as negotiation, hiring outside support and seeking social support as strategies of coping with role conflict.

Hypothesis 4: As compared to nascent and new business owners, when established business owners need to prioritize between roles due to the role conflict, they more often prioritize entrepreneurial roles than family and social roles.

finally

Hypothesis 5: Personal resources moderate the relationship between business stage and coping strategies; that is, with a high level of personal resources the differences between nascent, start-up and established business owners in terms of their coping strategies decrease.

4.3.2. Methods

4.3.2.1. Data Sources

Information about women entrepreneurs was obtained from local business associations, such as the Organization for Women in Self Employment (WISE), the Ethiopian Chapter of the African Women Entrepreneurship Program (AWEP), and the Ethiopian Fashion Designers Association (EFDA), as well as the Chamber of Commerce.

The list thus obtained was then divided into three groups following GEM's definitions of entrepreneurship phase (or stage): nascent (0-3 months), owners of new

businesses (3-42 months), and owners of established businesses (more than 42 months). The data were collected at two points in time. Demographic and coping strategy data were collected from February to May 2017. Data on personal resources were collected from the beginning of July to the end of August 2017 from participants who had filled out the first survey questionnaire.

4.3.2.2.Procedure

First, the researcher met with the leaders of the women's business associations to share her intent and seek permission. This enabled the researcher to participate in different workshops, meetings, and trade shows, where she was able to meet with individual women entrepreneurs, explain the research objective and seek consent. In almost all cases, the women entrepreneurs were willing to participate in the study. The researcher subsequently distributed the questionnaires using their platforms. Most of the respondents filled out their questionnaire during tea breaks in the presence of the principal investigator and the research assistants. Some took the questionnaire away and returned them completed. A few others filled out and returned the completed questionnaire using email.

For the first survey (February to May 2017), a total of 650 questionnaires were distributed and 500 completed questionnaires were collected. Due to the relationship struck with associations of the respondents, a response rate of 77% could obtained. For the second survey (beginning of July to end of August 2017), the researcher contacted 390 of the 500 respondents who had filled out the first survey and were willing to participate in the second. Additional enumerators were also hired and trained for better access to the selected women entrepreneurs. Furthermore, the researcher called and sent follow-up emails about the questionnaires after they had been emailed. Using all the possible strategies at the researcher's disposal to increase the response rate, 350 questionnaires were completed in the second survey and reach a response rate of 89%. Out of the 350

questionnaires filled out in that second survey, 43 were missing a substantial amount of data and were dropped from the analysis, resulting in 307 participants.

4.3.2.3. Measures

Coping categories of Hall (1972) were modified based on the finding from chapter two. Therefore, validation of the scale measures was conducted in this study. We followed an inductive approach to develop scale items for coping with role conflict.

Step 1: Item Generation

The literature on coping strategies was reviewed (e.g. Adisa et al., 2016; Hall, 1972; Jennings and McDougald, 2007; Mokomane, 2013b; Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2007; Whitehead and Kotze, 2003). Then the researcher focused on two scholars, Hall (1972) and Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2007), because of their coping models which are related to role conflict. Especially, Hall (1972) provided detail description for each coping topology which enabled the researcher to link with the case study result from the second chapter to develop the items.

The content analysis from the interviews produced 51 items about coping with role conflict related to business roles, family roles, and social roles, as well as personal factors. The 51 items were grouped into nine overall coping strategies based on the theory of coping strategies and opinion of scholars from Haramaya University.

Statements were categorized into the best-fitting coping strategy by the principal investigator and three other invited researchers from Haramaya University. The items were then sorted by four women entrepreneurs, all graduates of the management and business faculty, who had not been involved in the interviewing process. We believe that these women entrepreneurs had the cognitive capacity to read each coping statement and make cognitive judgments as to whether or not it represented the predetermined coping categories. The principal investigator facilitated this process, with the four outside women sorting the coping statements individually into the best-fitting coping strategy of the nine

possible strategies. These content-adequacy judgments produced a total of 36 items: four items in Seek Social Support; three items in Hire Outside Support; five items in Negotiation; four items in prioritize to Entrepreneurial Role; four items in Commitment to Social Roles; four items in Integrate Roles; four items in React to All Roles; three items in Plan and Organize; and five items in Act Passively. Detail descriptions on the content of each coping strategy were made as follows.

Prioritize Entrepreneurial Roles: items categorized under his strategy are those focusing on and prioritizing one's entrepreneurial role by postponing social role expectations (e.g. a woman's responsibilities in the family and community). It involves making greater sacrifices on the family and community fronts to accommodate business demands.

Prioritize Family and Social role expectations: items were on focusing on family and social role and expected behavior by postponing entrepreneurial role demands. That is making sacrifices in one's entrepreneurial role demands in order to accommodate family and community roles (e.g. canceling a business meeting to socialize with neighbors, friends, and extended family).

Seeking Social Support: items under this strategy involves seeking emotional and instrumental support from one's spouse, extended family, friends, and neighbors to manage multiple role demands and reduce role conflict.

Negotiation: items under this strategy involves negotiating with role senders (e.g. family or clients) to alter their role expectations and reduce role conflict. Role expectations emanating from the members of one's personal networks (e.g. family and friends), from business networks (e.g. customers and suppliers), and from community members (e.g. religious groups). For example, women entrepreneurs negotiate with their spouse about their domestic role in the light of their responsibilities as a business person so as to alter expectations at the family level.

Hiring Outside Help: This strategy involves procuring home help or hiring employees to delegate responsibilities in one or more domains.

Integrate Roles: This strategy involves combining roles in different status (e.g. women entrepreneurs responding to business deals while they are at home).

React to All Roles: This is a strategy where individuals make effort to fulfill role demands (e.g. women entrepreneurs working longer hours to meet the expectations at home and at their workplace).

Plan and Organize: Involves creating schedules for all roles and making effort to fulfill role expectations (e.g. women entrepreneurs allocate time for each of their roles in the family, in community and business owner roles, then trying to meet all the role expectations as per their schedule).

Act Passively: this strategy involves taking no conscious efforts to meet role expectations to manage role conflict.

Step 2: Scale Construction and Psychometric Test

Since the coping scales used in this study were not well-validated, psychometrically established measures, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) for factor structuring and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for model fit were conducted. These analyses were conducted using data collected from 307 participants. Nine factors were expected based on the item identification stage, but the EFA result made it evident that "react to all roles," "plan and organize," and "integrate roles" should be considered together as a single factor called "reacting to all."

Reacting to all involves focusing on working harder and longer, as well as combining roles, to meet all the role demands (e.g. entrepreneurial role, family roles, and community roles) and live up to the standard behavior expected of women in the society. Previous research (e.g. also considered these factors as one factor.

In addition, “act passively” was removed from the final analysis since all of the items had low standardized factor loadings. The items selected for each coping category are contained in Table 4.2.

The final items for each type of coping strategy were determined based on the highest standardized factor loadings from the results of the initial CFA. Examples of items and the category to which they were assigned include: “I receive physical and emotional support from my husband” would be *Seeking Social Support*; “I hire home help” would be *Hire Outside Support*; “I negotiate with clients” would be *Negotiation*; “I choose to behave like a business person in all contexts” would *be Prioritize Entrepreneurial Roles*; “I put my family first in all the contexts” would be *Prioritize Family and Social Role Expectations*; “I react to all the roles by doing everything expected of me” would be *Reacting to All.*

The Cronbach’s alpha scores for the categories in this study were 0.84, 0.88, 0.96, 0.94, 0.84, and 0.86 for Seeking Social Support, Hire Outside Support, Negotiation, Prioritize Entrepreneurial Role, Prioritize Family and Social Role Expectations, and React to All roles, respectively.

The fit of the items under each coping strategy was confirmed through CFA. Although the chi-square was significant [χ^2 (211) = 297, p<.01], other fit indices indicated that the items had good fit [CFI=.983, TLI=.980, RMSEA=.036]. After the initial CFA model was found to fit the data well, a series of additional CFAs were conducted to compare the hypothesized model fit to alternative competing models. Four models were examined: (1) the hypothesized (correlated) model consisting of six latent coping strategies; (2) a second-order model in which one factor affects the six latent coping strategies; (3) a unidimensional model in which all the coping strategy items are loaded onto a single factor; and (4) a bi-factor model in which two sets of latent factors (a general factor and specific types of coping) affect each coping strategy item. Since our models vary

in terms of the number of latent factors and are not structurally nested, the Akaike information criterion (AIC) index was used to compare the CFA models (Brown 2014). The AIC scores were as follows: Mode1 l = 773.78; Model 2 = 1234.217; Model 3 = 1520.9; Model 4 = 866.8. Brown (2014) states that the model with the lowest AIC value is the best fit for the data. Accordingly, the coping strategies hypothesized model (the correlated model, or Model 1) fit the data best.

Table 4.1: Standardized Factor Loading for Final Items (N=307)

Role Con flict Coping Strategy	**Final Scale Items**	**Factor Loading**	**Role Conflict Coping Strategy**	**Final Scale Items**	**Factor Loading**
PER	PER1	0.946	Nego	Nego1	0.963
	PER2	0.944		Nego2	0.996
	PER3	0.951		Nego3	0.885
	PER4	0.729			
PFSR	PFSR1	0.777	SSS	SSS1	0.889
	PFSR2	0.729		SSS2	0.726
	PFSR3	0.892		SSS3	0.787
	PFSR4	0.842		SSS4	0.789
RAR	RAR1	0.789	HOS	HOS1	0.638
	RAR2	0.876		HOS2	0.858
	RAR3	0.768		HOS3	0.641
	RAR4	0.783			
	RAR5	0.78			

Note: PER: Prioritize Entrepreneurial Role; PFSR: Prioritize family and Social role expectations; RAR: React to All Roles; Nego: Negotiation; SSS: Seeking Social Support; HOS: Hire Outside Support

Considering the descriptions of Hall (1972), coping topologies and case study results, the above coping strategies were further divided into four categories (see. section 4.2.1). These are Structural Role Redefinition (Type I): including Seeking social support, Negotiation, and Hiring outside help. The Personal Role Redefinition (Type II) of Hall's topology further categorized as prioritize entrepreneurial roles Vs prioritize family and social role expectations. The forth topology is Reactive role behavior (Type III), which is reacting to all roles.

A CFA analysis was conducted to check if the data fit the four-factors model. The fit statistics indices results are CFI=.960, TLI=.950, and RMSEA=. 0.069. According to Hu and Bentler (1999), for the maximum likelihood method, a cutoff value close to .95 for CFI and TLI, and a cutoff value close .06 for RMSEA are needed before we can conclude that there is a relatively good fit between the hypothesized model and the observed data. Based on these cutoffs, we can conclude that the proposed four factors model of coping strategies is fit to the data. Discriminant and convergent validity test were also conducted (see the result in table 4.2.): composite reliability (CR) > 0.7, convergent validity is average variance extracted (AVE) > 0.5, discriminant validity is maximum shared variance (MSV) < AVE. Based on the validity threshold of Hair et al. (2010), our result shows no concern for validity.

Table 4.2: Discriminant and Convergent Validity Test for four models coping[8]

	CR	**AVE**	**MSV**	**MaxR(H)**	PFSR	**Type I**	PER	Type II
PFSR	0.885	0.660	0.315	0.900	**0.812**			
Type I	0.768	0.533	0.454	0.817	-0.534	**0.730**		
PER	0.943	0.805	0.423	0.964	-0.557	0.650	**0.897**	
Type III	0.855	0.599	0.454	0.878	0.561	-0.674	-0.456	**0.774**

Note: PFSR: Prioritize Family and Social Roles; Type I= structural role redefinition (including negotiation; Seeking Social Support; and Hiring Outside Support); PER: Prioritize Entrepreneurial Role; Type III=Reactive role behaviors

Personal Resources

Three types of personal resources were considered in the current study: optimism, resilience, and self-efficacy. We measured optimism using six items from Scheier, Carver, and Bridges (1994), further validated by Trottier, Mageau, Trudel, and Hal-liwell (2008). The six items consist of three items that are positively phrased and three items that are

[8] The test was conducted using Gaskin, J,. and Lim,. J. (2016). Master Validity Tool, AMOS Plugin. Gaskination's StatWiki

negatively phrased. Following Xanthopoulou et al. (2007), the negatively phrased items were adjusted so that higher scores represent a higher level of optimism.

Items were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). Resilience was also measured using six items, according to the brief resilience scale (BRS) from Smith et al. (2008). An example is: "I tend to bounce back quickly after hard times." Items were similarly measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5).

Finally, self-efficacy was measured using the new general self-efficacy scale validated by Chen et al. (2001). An example of an item in this category would be: "In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me." Responses were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). The Cronbach's alpha scores for optimism, resilience, and self-efficacy were 0.84, 0.81, and 0.95, respectively.

CFA was conducted to test the representativeness of optimism, resilience, and self-efficacy as indicators of a single factor, personal resources. First, CFAs were performed for a three-factor model consisting of optimism, resilience, and self-efficacy. The fit indices for this model were $\chi 2$ (163) = 481, $p < .01$, CMIN/DF = 3, CFI=90, GFI = .86, and RMSEA = .08. Then, a second-order CFA model consisting of optimism, resilience, and self-efficacy as indicators of personal resources was conducted. The fit indices for the second-order CFA model were $\sim^2$ (112) = 276, $p < .01$, CMIN/DF = 2.5, CFI = .95 GFI = .92, RMSEA = .07. The fit indices show that the second-order CFA model fit the data best. Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) similarly examined self-efficacy, Organizational-based self-esteem, and optimism as indicators of the single factor personal resources.

Business Stages

A business stage was measured by taking the age of an enterprise into account, following GEM's definition. Accordingly, owners of a business that was less than three months old

were categorized as novices; owners of a business between three and 42 months old were categorized as new business owners (start-up stage); and owners of a business older than 42 months were categorized as established business owners (growth and maturity stages). The new and established business owners considered in this study were not habitual or serial entrepreneurs (that is, people who never exit businesses and constantly restart them).

Control Variables

Household income, age, and education were controlled for. Households with a high-income level may have better options for coping with role conflict. For instance, they can afford to buy labor-saving devices for the home, freeing up time for the women of the house to devote to their business and social roles. Household income can thus influence a woman's choice of coping strategies. Respondents were asked to designate their household income level as one of four categories: very low ("1"), low ("2"), medium ("3"), or high ("4").

Regarding age, Heilman et al. (2004), for instance, found that older respondents tend to be more apt to use problem-focused coping than younger respondents. Respondents were asked to indicate their age to the nearest year and then grouped into one of five categories: "2" (26-30 years); "3" (31-35 years); "4" (36-45 years); "5" (46-50 years); or "6" (over 50). Furthermore, we also expected that the entrepreneurs' level of education might influence their use of coping strategies.

4.3.2.5. Analysis

Pearson correlations were conducted to assess the general relationship among the study variables. Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to examine strategies for coping with role conflict across stages of business. MANOVA is a method for examining the effect of a single categorical independent variable on several dependent variables (Field, 2013). In this study, it was used to examine the coping strategies chosen by women

entrepreneurs across three stages of business. Following Field (2013)'s suggestion, a step-down analysis was performed. First, overall (or omnibus) tests on the four categories of coping strategy proposed in this study and on the business stages were performed. Since significant omnibus F in all the tests was obtained in the first step, a series of post hoc tests were performed.

First, a series of one-way ANOVA on each dependent variable was conducted. Then, the researcher used an approach that was considerably more specific in order to locate the significant differences by using a Bonferroni post hoc test. To further test the differences among the three groups of entrepreneurs in their coping strategies and the moderation effect of personal resources), moderation analysis with structural equation modeling (MSEM) was used.

Multicollinearity test was also conducted. According to Kock (2015), a full collinearity test can successfully identify common method bias, and a variance inflation factor (VIF) equal to or lower than 3.3 shows that the model is free of common method bias. In this study, the VIFs for the three personal resources variables of optimism, resilience, and self-efficacy (which together predict coping strategies) were between 1.25 and 1.33.

4.3.3. Results

Table 4.3 presents the correlations between the study variables. The results in general show low (10%) to moderate (62%) correlations among the main study variables. The collinearity diagnostics results show no evidence of multicollinearity.

Table 4.3: Means (M), Standard Deviations (SD), and Correlations among the Variables (N=307)

	M	SD	OP	SE	RS	PER	Type III	PFSR	Type I
OP	3.4	0.676							
SE	3.51	0.76	.408**						
RS	3.62	0.663	.260**	.400**					
PER	3.53	0.845	.427**	.576**	.389**				
Type III	3.63	0.496	-.188**	-.345**	-0.104	-.354**			
PFSR	3.16	0.805	-.338**	-.559**	-.211**	-.515**	.430**		
Type I	3.12	0.568	.514**	.680**	.376**	.671**	-.452**	-.574**	

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Note: OP: Optimism, SE: Self-Efficacy, RS: Resilience, PER: Prioritize Entrepreneurial Roles, Reactive role behavior (Type III), PFSR: Prioritize Family and Social Role, Structural Role Redefinition (Type I)

The results of the MANOVA[9] for the overall tests on the four types of coping strategy variables and business stages show that the combined coping strategy variables differ significantly across the business stages [Wilks' Lambda = .134, F (8,602) = 130.60, P=.000, P < .01, and effect size is .663]. The main effect of the business stage on the type of coping strategy was significant, with the following values: Type I [F (2,304) = 375.30, P = .000, P < .01, and effect size of .712], Prioritize Entrepreneurial Roles [F (2,304) = 224.32, P = .000, P < .01, and effect size of .596], Prioritize Family and Social Role [F (2,304) = 166, P = .000, P <.01, and effect size of . 522], and Type III [F (2,304) = 81, P = .000, P < .01, and effect size of .350].

Bonferroni's multiple comparisons (see Table 4.7) indicates differences in the use of Type I, Prioritize Entrepreneurial Roles, Prioritize Family and Social Role, between novice and new business owners, between novice and established business owners, and between new and established business owners (P<.01). No significant differences were found between nascent and startup in the use of type III coping strategy, reactive role

[9] The Box's test of equality of covariance matrices is =.195, P> .05, meets the assumptions of equality of variance matrices. The Levene's Test of equality of error variance show non-significant results. Showing the variance error DV is equal for all the groups.

behavior. Reactive role behavior (Type III coping) is found to be the main coping strategies at all the stages (M=3.63) followed by the structural role redefinition (M= 3.16); the least is prioritizing entrepreneurial roles(M=2.53) (see. Table 4.4.)

Table 4.4: Descriptive Statistics

stages of business		**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
Prioritize Entrepreneurial Roles	Nascent	1.656	0.492
	Startup	2.705	0.6
	Established	3.23	0.515
	Total	2.528	0.845
Reactive role behavior (Type III),	Nascent	3.83	0.375
	Startup	3.84	0.395
	Established	3.21	0.433
	Total	3.63	0.496
Prioritize Family and Social Role,	Nascent	3.74	0.506
	Startup	3.36	0.539
	Established	2.35	0.626
	Total	3.16	0.805
Structural Role Redefinition (Type I)	Nascent	2.47	0.307
	Startup	3.00	0.291
	Established	3.77	0.319
	Total	3.08	0.568

MSEM analysis was conducted to test the differences across stages of business and moderating effect of personal resources. The model consists of five exogenous (Business stage including Novice, Start-ups, Established, personal resources, and their interaction) and four endogenous Prioritize Entrepreneurial Roles, Reactive role behavior (Type III), Prioritize Family and Social Role, Structural Role Redefinition (Type I)) latent factors.

Business stages, measured by three types of business owners (nascent, start-ups and established) is a categorical variable. Hence, a set of dummy variables was created to represent the categories. The dummy variable for established business owners was used as the reference group, hence, not included in the model (see. table 4.5). The standardized factor score obtained after the respective factor analysis was used as an indicator of each

latent factor. For example, the indicator for personal resources was the factor score for all the personal resource scales, including Optimism, Self-efficacy, and Resilience.

The indicator for the interaction factor was the multiplicative result of the dummy variables including nascent, startups and established business owners with the factor score for the personal resources. The model included direct paths from the business stage (i.e., nascent and startups), personal resources, and their interaction with the four strategies for coping with role conflict. Business stages (nascent and startups) and personal resources could correlate, while correlations between business stages, personal resources, and their interaction term were expected to be zero.

The results of the MSEM analysis showed that the model fit the data well [$\chi 2$ (6) = 7.466, GFI = .965, TLI=.998, RMSEA = .028, LO90 = .00, HI90 = .083, CFI = .998, IFI = .999, NFI = .999].

There are no significant differences found between established, nascent and new business owners in their use of Reactive Role Behavior (Type III) as their coping strategy. Hence, hypothesis1 is not confirmed. However, nascent and new entrepreneurs 26% and 24% respectively more likely prioritize family and social role as compared to established business owners. Therefore, hypothesis 2 is confirmed. Moreover, as compared to established business owners, nascent and new business owners 12% and 14% respectively less likely use structural role redefinitions (type I) such as negotiation, hiring outside support and seeking social support as strategies of coping with role conflict. Therefore, hypothesis 3 is confirmed. Compared to established business owners, nascent and new business owners also 20 % and 15% respectively less likely prioritize entrepreneurial roles. Therefore, hypothesis 4 is confirmed.

Table 4.5: MSEM Analysis Results

Relationships			Beta Estimate	P
Structural Role Redefinition (Type I)	<---	Nascent	-0.119	0.004
Prioritize Entrepreneurial Roles	<---	Nascent	-0.201	***
Prioritize Family and Social Role	<---	Nascent	0.259	***
Reactive role behavior (Type III)	<---	Nascent	0.004	0.220
Structural Role Redefinition (Type I)	<---	Na*PR	-0.090	0.005
Prioritize Entrepreneurial Roles	<---	Na*PR	-0.104	0.029
Prioritize Family and Social Role	<---	Na*PR	0.134	***
Reactive role behavior (Type III)	<---	Na*PR	0.008	0.240
Structural Role Redefinition (Type I)	<---	Startup	-0.141	***
Prioritize Entrepreneurial Roles	<---	Startup	-0.153	***
Prioritize Family and Social Role	<---	Startup	0.243	***
Reactive role behavior (Type III)	<---	Startup	0.012	0.067
Structural Role Redefinition (Type I)	<---	Star*PR	-0.108	***
Prioritize Entrepreneurial Roles	<---	Star*PR	-0.103	***
Prioritize Family and Social Role	<---	Star*PR	0.181	***
Reactive role behavior (Type III)	<---	Star*PR	0.003	0.072
Structural Role Redefinition (Type I)	<---	Personal Resources (PR)	0.677	***
Prioritize Entrepreneurial Roles	<---	Personal Resources (PR)	0.553	***
Prioritize Family and Social Role	<---	Personal Resources (PR)	-0.380	***
Reactive role behavior (Type III)	<---	Personal Resources (PR)	0.271	***

A moderation effect exists when the coefficient of a path from the interaction factor to the endogenous factor is statistically significant (Crandall, et al., 2012). In this study, the path coefficients from the three of the coping strategies are significant (see Table 4.5). When the variable of nascent interact with personal resources, the difference between

nascent and established business owners in their use of structural role redefinition, prioritizing entrepreneurial roles, prioritizing family and social role are decreased by 4%, 10%, and 12% respectively. Similarly, as the variable start-ups interact with personal resources, the differences between new entrepreneurs and established business owners in the use of structural role redefinition, prioritizing entrepreneurial roles, prioritizing family and social role as coping strategies are reduced by 4%, 4.5%, and 6.5% respectively. Therefore, **Hypothesis 5 is confirmed**: Personal resources moderate the relationship between business stage and coping strategies; that is, it reduces the differences between nascent, start-up and established business owners in terms of their choice of coping strategies.

4.4. Concluding Remarks

This chapter started out asking two questions: (1) how do the choice of strategies for coping with role conflict differ at across stages of business? (2) how do the personal resources of a woman entrepreneur moderate the relationship between stage of their business and the coping strategy they use?

The answer to the first question: the MANOVA analysis results show that the tendency to employ a particular coping strategy differ significantly across business stages, except the Type III coping (reactive role behavior). Overall, the result shows that reactive role behavior (Type III coping) as the most preferred whereas prioritizing entrepreneurial roles is the least preferred types of coping strategies at all stages of business.

In the context of this study, the importance of the reacting to all roles as a coping strategy can be attributed to the difficulty in drawing boundaries between roles. It is a context where women are compelled to combine all their various roles. Hence, women entrepreneurs must necessarily assume multiple roles. Consistent with the findings of

Jennings and Brush (2013), the women entrepreneurs had difficulty separating their business from other aspects of their life .

In addition, the women entrepreneurs in this study less often prioritize entrepreneurial roles as ways of coping with role conflict. This may attribute to the social sanction imposed on them if they behave in stereotypical contrary ways by putting their business at the top of roles that their society assigned them based on their gender

The MSEM analysis result also shows that, compared to nascent and new business owners, established business owners more often use structural redefinition (Type I coping) such as negotiation, seeking social support and hiring outside supports to cope with role conflict. One of the explanations could be, unlike the established business owners, who have confidence in their social networks supports, early-stage entrepreneurs lack the experience to access the social network that can support them in venture creation and development process.

Moreover, if the women entrepreneurs have to prioritize between their roles due to role conflict, nascent and new business owners more often prioritize family and social role, while established business owners prioritizing entrepreneurial roles. This can be because, early-stage entrepreneurs do not have a psychological contract with their venture, whereas, at a later stage, entrepreneurs have developed the psychological contract with their enterprise and are eagerly interested in their business activities. Especially for women entrepreneurs in SSA putting family and social expectations first is a sign of 'good quality' for women to fit to the standard in their society as they have not yet proven their success, women entrepreneurs their early stage may not afford not to focus on family and social role.

For the second research question, our empirical evidence shows that the gaps between nascent, new and established business owners in terms of their coping strategies are reduced with the introduction of personal resources to the model. The result shows

that women entrepreneurs with a high level of personal resources more often use structural role redefinition (types I coping) such as negotiating with others, hiring support and seeking social support than doing everything by themselves (type III coping). Explanations for this result can be, individuals with higher levels of personal resources expect positive outcomes, are confident, and have the endurance needed to face challenges. These attributes can positively stimulate women entrepreneurs in our sample to involve others (types I) by effectively communicating and negotiating to change the role expectations posed upon them.

In addition, when women business owners with abundant personal resources have to change the priorities between roles due to the role conflict, they less likely respond to family and social roles and more strongly respond to entrepreneurial roles. This result can be explained by Mäkikangas and Kinnunen (2003)'s finding that at the opposite end of the spectrum individuals with low personal resources base their actions on social expectations.

Finally, this study has some limitations that need to be acknowledged. First, the data on personal resources and coping strategies was based exclusively on self-reported measures, which might result in common method. To minimize the potential bias, following the suggestion of Podsakoff et al. (2003), we obtained measures of personal resources and coping strategies at two points in time and conducted a multicollinearity test. Second, our study is cross-sectional, which limits the ability for drawing conclusions regarding the causal relationships among the study variables. Our findings would thus need to be validated using longitudinal designs to provide insight into causality.

Table 4.6: Items, Means, Standard Deviations, Factor Loadings, and Cronbach's Alphas (N=307)

Items	M	SD	Factor Loading	alpha
React to all roles				0.86
Worked harder and longer than usual to meet all roles demands	3.77	0.684	0.789	
Planned, scheduled, and devoted more time	3.55	0.71	0.876	
I respond to business-related issues when I am at home	3.46	0.652	0.768	
I respond to family-related issues when I am at work	3.65	0.576	0.783	
I socialize when I am in my business owner role	3.65	0.58	0.78	
Prioritize to Entrepreneurial Role				0.94
I am physically and psychologically disconnected from my home when I am at work	2.04	0.69	0.73	
I choose to respond to my business role	2.03	0.71	0.95	
I do not bother myself about social issues	2.04	0.71	0.95	
I choose to behave like a business person in all situations	2.09	0.76	0.94	
Prioritize to Social and family Role				0.84
I am physically and psychologically disconnected from my work when I am at home	3.1	0.77	0.84	
I put my family first	3.48	0.62	0.89	
I choose to socialize when the need arises	2.91	0.68	0.73	
I choose to behave as per the social expectations	3.07	0.72	0.78	
Negotiation				0.96
I discuss my roles with my family members to redefine role expectations.	3.19	1.29	0.89	
I negotiate with people in my business networks (clients, suppliers, and colleagues) to redefine role expectations	3.16	1.31	0.99	
I negotiate with people in my social networks (friends, neighbors, and extended family) to redefine role expectations	2.93	1.27	0.97	

Seek Social Support				0.84
I receive physical and emotional support from my spouse	3.24	0.88	0.89	
Chores are divided among family members	3.12	0.76	0.63	
I receive physical and emotional support from extended family (mother, aunt, other relatives)	3.21	0.75	0.73	
I receive physical and emotional support from friends and neighbors	3.07	0.54	0.79	
Hire Outside Support				0.88
I hire home help	3.79	0.83	0.64	
I hire and delegate business roles (for example, train an employee to manage venture)	2.97	0.78	0.86	
I delegate community roles (for example, hire a day worker for community work)	3.06	1.08	0.64	

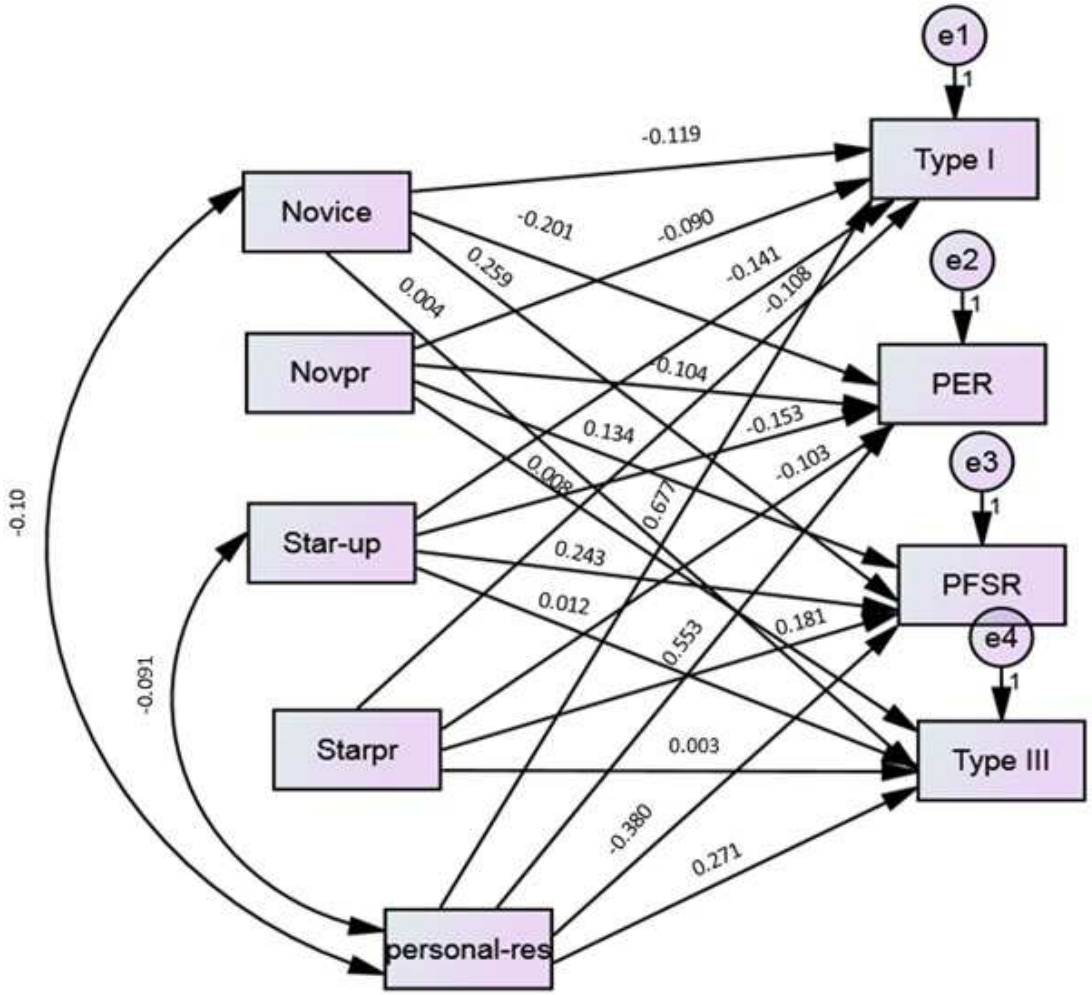
Table 4.7: Bonferroni Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable			Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Prioritize Entrepreneurial Roles	Nascent	Startup	-1.048471*	.0749208	.000	-1.228828	-.868114
		Established	-1.575337*	.0758381	.000	-1.757902	-1.392772
	Startup	Nascent	1.048471*	.0749208	.000	.868114	1.228828
		Established	-.526867*	.0752999	.000	-.708136	-.345597
	Established	Startup	1.575337*	.0758381	.000	1.392772	1.757902
		Startup	.526867*	.0752999	.000	.345597	.708136
Reactive role behavior (Type III),	Nascent	Startup	.00	.056	1.000	-.14	.13
		Established	.62*	.057	.000	.49	.76
	Startup	Nascent	.00	.056	1.000	-.13	.14
		Established	.63*	.056	.000	.49	.76
	Established	Nascent	-.62*	.057	.000	-.76	-.49
		Startup	-.63*	.056	.000	-.76	-.49
Prioritize Family and Social Role	Nascent	Startup	.37*	.078	.000	.19	.56
		Established	1.39*	.079	.000	1.20	1.57
	Startup	Nascent	-.37*	.078	.000	-.56	-.19
		Established	1.01*	.078	.000	.82	1.20

	Established	Nascent	-1.39*	.079	.000	-1.57	-1.20
		Startup	-1.01*	.078	.000	-1.20	-.82
Structural Role Redefinition (Type I)	Nascent	Startup	-.645946*	.0425656	.000	-.748414	-.543478
		Established	-1.178115*	.0430867	.000	-1.281838	-1.074393
	Startup	Nascent	.645946*	.0425656	.000	.543478	.748414
		Established	-.532169*	.0427809	.000	-.635156	-.429183
	Established	Nascent	1.178115*	.0430867	.000	1.074393	1.281838
		Startup	.532169*	.0427809	.000	.429183	.635156
Based on the observed means. The error term is Mean Square(Error) = .094.							
*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.							

Based on the observed means. The error term is Mean Square (Error) = .161.

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level. Figure 4.2: AMOS Graphics Result for MSEM (Moderating Influence of Personal Resources Standardized Path Coefficients Result)



Note: PER: Prioritize Entrepreneurial Role; PFSR: Prioritize Family and Social Roles; Type III: Reactive role behaviors; Type I strtcural role redefinition (including negotiation; Seeking Social Support; and Hiring Outside Support); PR: Personal Resources; Novpr: Novice (Nascent)*Personal resources; Stapr: Start-ups*personal resources

Figure 4.2: AMOS Graphics Result for MSEM (Moderating Influence of Personal Resources Standardized Path Coefficients Result)

Chapter 5

Role Conflict Intensity and Entrepreneurial Success: Evidence from Women Entrepreneurs in Ethiopia

5.1. Introduction

Women business owners in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) often strive to carry out demanding roles concurrently (Adisa et al., 2016). These roles include managing businesses and performing household activities often reserved for women (Neneh, 2017; Rehman and Azam Roomi, 2012). Both sets of roles demand significant amounts of time and personal resources (Rehman and Azam Roomi, 2012) and can thus create conflict for a business owner (Leaptrott, 2009).

Moreover, women business owners in SSA experience conflict stemming from the incompatibility between societal expectations of what is required of a 'good woman' and what is expected of a 'typical businessperson' (Brixiová and Kangoye, 2016:88). For instance, in SSA women's roles as business owners are often not taken into account in their interactions with others; women are merely viewed in terms of their traditional roles. The dynamics between business roles, family roles, and the expectations of others creates role conflict (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). This is because the fact that a woman is involved in business does not lessen her responsibilities in the family or other expectations of her, and women are expected to fulfill all roles and expectations.

Role conflict can negatively affect the growth and success of businesses owned by women (Duberley and Carrigan, 2013; Jennings and McDougald, 2007; McGowan et al., 2012; Poggesi, Mari, and De Vita, 2016). Regardless of the binding constraint of the potential role conflict, some women-owned businesses in SSA still perform well (Spring 2009).

This raises two questions (1) how does the level of role conflict influence strategies that female entrepreneurs use to cope? and (2) how do strategies that female entrepreneurs use to cope with the role conflict influence entrepreneurial success?

Overall, relatively few entrepreneurship scholars have examined coping strategies. Those who did have examined them as a precedent for work and family conflict (Rotondo,

Carlson, and Kincaid, 2003; Shelton, 2006). The emphasis was on the effectiveness of coping strategies in terms of altering the potential sources of conflict from work and family domains. Coping strategies have also been examined as ways of dealing with entrepreneurial failure (Singh, Corner, and Pavlovich, 2007) or as a form of moderating between entrepreneurial stress and emotional outcomes (Patzelt and Shepherd, 2011).

Entrepreneurs can experience role conflict regardless of the efforts taken to alter to manage multiple roles. For example, a woman who has a business meeting with a client may receive an unexpected call from her child's school. This can lead to conflict stemming from the business owner–mother interface. This woman could structurally cope with the conflict by negotiating with the client to change the schedule or she could seek the support of friends and family to handle the matter at school for her.

Role conflict can negatively affect entrepreneurial success (Duberley and Carrigan, 2013; Poggesi et al., 2016). Individuals engaging in entrepreneurship must, therefore, find ways of coping with it. Very few studies, though, have examined the impact of the manner chosen for coping with role conflict on an individual's success as an entrepreneur.

While Örtqvist et al. (2007) examined the effect of coping strategies on success, they considered only financial performance. However, the validity of using such traditional indicators of success in the context of women entrepreneurship has been questioned (McGowan et al., 2012; Reijonen and Komppula, 2007).

Instead, the importance of subjective measures of success has been stressed for advancing entrepreneurial research and practice in this area(Dijkhuizen, Gorgievski, van Veld-hoven, and Schalk, 2016; Fisher et al., 2014; Gorgievski, Ascalon, and Stephan, 2011; Wach et al., 2016). Specifically, women business owners in SSA often pursue both economic and social goals (Boudrias et al., 2014).

Another gap in the literature is that previous studies have not focused on the actions that entrepreneurs take once they experience role conflict. As a result, they have

neglected how the coping strategies of entrepreneurs are affected by the intensity of conflict. This may be important, as Jennings and McDougald (2007) suggested. In this chapter the point of departure is therefore that the strategy that entrepreneurs use to cope with role conflict will be influenced by the degree of role conflict they experience.

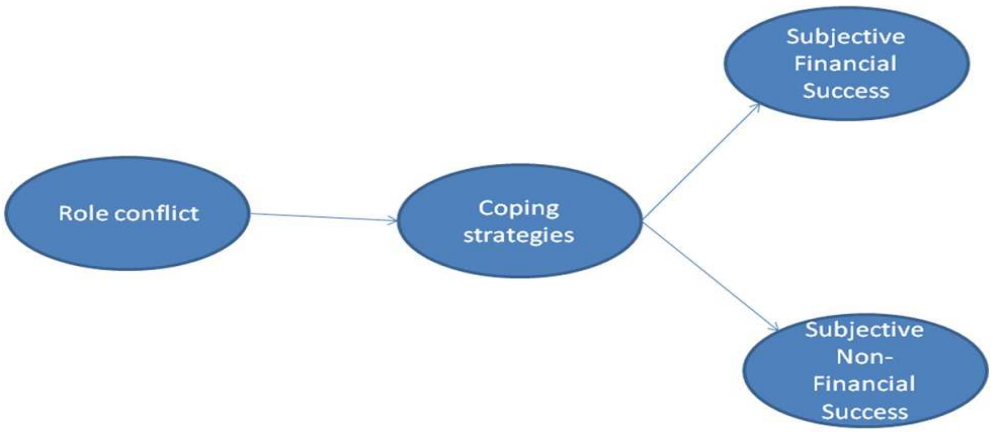


Figure 5.1: Conceptual Model

Previous authors have also discussed the success factors related to female entrepreneurship, such as knowledge, resources, experience, role models, education, information, technology, and entrepreneurial attributes (Azam Roomi, Harrison, and Beaumont-Kerridge, 2009; Hopp and Martin, 2017; Lee and Stearns, 2012; Marlow and Swail, 2014; Ramadani et al., 2013). None of these studies, however, has addressed coping strategies as a success factor.

The aim of the study reported in this chapter is to examine the relationship between role conflict, coping strategies, and subjective financial and non-financial success in the SSA context using a sample of women entrepreneurs from Ethiopia, as depicted in Figure 5.1

The rest of the Chapter is structured as follows. First the link between role conflict, entrepreneurial success, coping strategies are discussed based on relevant literature study. Based on the discussion, hypotheses were developed as presented in the empirical section

study. Then details on the procedures methods, analysis and results are presented. Finally, concluding remarks and limitations for future research are made.

5.2. Relevant Literature

5.2.1. Role conflict

Role conflict is experienced when multiple role demands arise simultaneously and responding to one of the roles requires foregoing the benefits of other roles (Edwards and Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) identified three forms of work and family conflict according to the source of role conflict: time-based, strain based, and behavior based. Time-based conflict occurs when there are competing time demands between roles; strain-based conflict occurs when pressures from one role weaken performance in another, and behavior-based conflict occurs when the behaviors expected in different roles are incompatible. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) added a fourth dimension of work and family conflict called energy-based conflict, which results from a lack of energy to meet all the various demands arising from multiple roles.

These definitions of role conflict signify the bi-directional nature of the conflict, whereby family roles (e.g. caregiving) can affect non-family ones and vice versa (Frone, 2000; König and Cesinger, 2015). Accordingly, it is common in the related research to specify the direction of the work-family conflict as either being work-to-family conflict or family-to-work (König and Cesinger, 2015).

The research has tended to restrict itself to these two poles in terms of the sources of role conflict: work and family. However, 'entrepreneurship is embedded in a social context, channeled and facilitated, or constrained and inhibited by, people's position in a social network, with the entrepreneur being dependent upon the information and resources provided by social networks' (Jack and Anderson 2002, 78). This indicates yet another source of role conflict beyond work or family. In response to the lack of study

regarding the social dimension, specifically for research among women entrepreneurs in SSA, in our previous study (see. Chapter 2 and chapter 3) we have identified a third potential source of role conflict: social role expectations (SRE). SREs are the behaviors and roles society believe are 'appropriate' for women, which may not fit with the characteristics and roles associated with successful entrepreneurs, the so-called entrepreneurial role demands (ERDs). As a result, when SREs interface with ERDs, it creates a role conflict between the SRE and the ERD. Like work and family conflict, SRE and ERD conflict is bi-directional in nature.

In designing the research questionnaire in this thesis, the bidirectional nature of role conflict, as well as its multiple sources (family, work, social, and entrepreneurial roles) will be considered. However, since our focus here is level of role conflict, overall experience of role conflict will be considered. Hence, we conceptualized role conflict as the inter-role conflict that arises from participating in multiple roles which are to some extent incompatible (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985) – that is, the existence of strong pressure from two or more non-compliant roles (Kahn et al., 1964).

The empirical evidence on the consequences of role conflict has primarily covered the impact on health conditions (e.g. Karatepe and Sokmen, 2006; Yavas, Babakus, and Karatepe, 2008), job performance (e.g. Bruck, Allen, and Spector, 2002; Netemeyer, Maxham III, and Pullig, 2005), and family well-being (e.g. Lu, Siu, Spector, and Shi, 2009). In the current study, we follow the arguments of Edwards and Rothbard (2000) and Jennings and McDougald (2007) and anticipate that experienced any role conflict can raise negative emotions, which prompt coping efforts in the individual in question. Thus, we argue that the role conflict does not in and of itself determine the outcome in terms of entrepreneurial success, but rather the individual's response does. It has also been suggested that strategies for managing role conflict are a significant determinant of firm performance (Shelton, 2006).

Following the argument by Jennings and McDougald (2007), it was argued in the current study that higher levels of role conflict do not necessarily result in strategies that lead to positive financial and non-financial success.

5.2.2 Entrepreneurial success

'Entrepreneurial success is a phenomenon that seems to be understood by implication or context' (Fisher et al., 2014, 479). One interpretation of this relates to a culture's or individual's perception of what determines entrepreneurial success (Rauch Frese, 2000). For example, Wach et al. (2016) define entrepreneurial success as the criteria used by entrepreneurs to judge business success.

Wealth has long been considered a key indicator of success (Hechavarría et al., 2017). Yet entrepreneurs do not necessarily consider achieving wealth to be an indicator of personal success (Dej, 2011; Stephan, Patterson, Kelly, and Mair, 2016). In some cases, an entrepreneur may continue with a company that is financially underperforming because the business is fulfilling some non-financial expectation (DeTienne et al., 2008). Conversely, entrepreneurs have been known to forgo profitable businesses because the firm is not enabling them to achieve their personal goals (Wach et al., 2016).

Women entrepreneurs, in particular, consider success to be the achievement of inner goals (Azam Roomi et al., 2009; Christopher Weber and Geneste, 2014; Dalborg, von Friedrichs, and Vincent, 2012; Fisher et al., 2014). This includes survival, job creation, work-life balance, independence, recognition, and personal development. For example, Azam Roomi et al. (2009) indicate in their findings that most women entrepreneurs do not want to grow their venture but instead keep it small, engaging in non-scalable businesses. Hechavarría et al. (2017) also found that female entrepreneurs focus on 'social value goals 'over economic profit creation' as compared to male entrepreneurs.

Therefore, entrepreneurial success is a multidimensional construct that is best captured by more than financial and economic indicators (Fisher et al., 2014), and has various indicators of success: firm performance, workplace relationships, personal fulfillment, community impact, and personal financial rewards (Wach et al., 2016).

The multidimensional success factors can further be categorized as subjective financial success and subjective personal success (Dijkhuizen, et al., 2016). The subjective financial success is related to income and finance, whereas the subjective personal success, centered around personal development and other non-financial goals of the entrepreneur (Dej 2010). The idea from Dej (2010) is that success indicators can be grouped into financial, linked to money and personal success are non-financial.

Accordingly, the multidimensional, as well as financial vs non-financial categories, will be taken in to account in this thesis. Therefore, subjective financial success includes firm performance (e.g. turnover) and personal financial rewards (family income). The subjective non-financial success indicators are workplace relationships (e.g. strong customer relationship), community impact (e.g. social recognition) and personal fulfillment (e.g. personal development).

5.2.3 Coping strategies

Scholars recognize the importance of coping for easing role conflict, which has prompted interest in the strategies used by individuals and families to balance multiple roles (Adisa et al., 2016). Two major theories have prevailed in the literature to date: the strategy identified for coping with stress developed by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) and the one for coping with role conflict developed by Hall (1972). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) draw a distinction between problem-based and emotional-based coping. Problem-based coping deals with doing something to relieve stress-related problems and emotional-based coping refer to ways of regulating the emotions caused by the stress (Tidd and Friedman, 2002).

Problem-based coping is action-oriented and is generally considered to be an effective strategy, while emotion-based coping fails to address the underlying causes of the stress and is therefore considered less effective (Tidd and Friedman, 2002).

Hall (1972), meanwhile, identified three types of strategies for coping with role conflict: (1) structural role redefinition, which involves actively engaging with role senders to reduce role conflict by reaching mutual agreements on a new set of expectations; (2) personal role redefinition, which involves altering personal concepts of role expectations received from others; and (3) reactive role behavior, which involves an effort to improve role performance without attempting to alter either structural or personal concepts of role expectations. Örtqvist et al. (2007) derived their two dimensions of coping – role redefinition and role behavior – from Hall (1972). Role redefinition refers to responding to role conflict by changing other people's (structural role redefinition) or one's own (personal role redefinition) expectations for the role. Role behavior refers to responding to role conflict by adjusting one's behavior through either working harder (reactive role behavior) or diverting attention in a belief that meeting the role demands is impossible (passive role behavior).

In the fourth chapter, four coping categories of Hall (1972) were modified based on the findings of this thesis among women entrepreneurs in Ethiopia. These are Structural Role Redefinition (Type I), Personal Role Redefinition (Type II) of Hall (1972), which we further classified as prioritize entrepreneurial roles versus prioritize family social role expectations and Reactive Role Behavior (Type III). The current study analyses these four dimensions of coping strategies in terms of their relationship to both role conflict and entrepreneurial success.

Structural Role Redefinition (Type I): This strategy involves communication, negotiation, and delegations to change to a new set of expectations which agreed up. The key feature of this coping strategy is involving others in the process of coping. This can be

done through negotiation, seeking social support and hiring outside support. Negotiating with role senders to reduce, relocate, and reschedule activities as needed to meet expectations. The aim is to make the role senders understand the scope of expectations the entrepreneur must deal with and how a slight adjustment in expectations can resolve inconsistencies(Hall, 1972). When an entrepreneur experiences a conflict between roles that are important to both her and the role sender, the role conflict can be high (Carr and Hmieleski, 2015; Clark, 2000; Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). As a result, both the role sender and entrepreneur might be motivated to modify the role expectations and negotiate under such conditions. In addition, when individuals perceive they cannot manage conflict between by themselves, they may more likely delegate their role to others by seeking social support and/or hiring outside support. Research has also shown that individuals are more likely to seek social support in scenarios perceived to be stressful (Day and Livingstone, 2003).

Negotiating with role senders and readjusting expectations can improve venture performance (Örtqvist et al., 2007). For example, entrepreneurs who negotiate with their customers to readjust order delivery might retain existing customers and attract new ones. Negotiating with members of one's personal and social networks can also build good social relations and create community impact (Nziku and Struthers, 2017). When entrepreneurs successfully negotiate role expectations, they can reduce irregularity, uncertainty, and over expectations (Örtqvist et al., 2007). Hence, successful negotiation can result in a sound work-life balance, personal work flexibility, and good mental and physical health, thereby leading to positive financial and non-financial success. Social support also can decrease an entrepreneur's involvement in the duties or responsibilities of one or more domains. For example, studies have shown that using personal networks and family support are an effective coping strategy during the new venture process (Greve and Salaff, 2003). By relieving women of some of their responsibilities, social support can provide

them with more time to engage in all of their roles, thereby enhancing their ability to meet all role expectations. Besides, Rotondo et al. (2003) found that help-seeking is effective in lowering role conflict. Individuals, who seek support, tend to receive the constructive help and/or comfort they require (Dawa and Namatovu, 2015). Therefore, this strategy is likely to enhance success. Moreover, hiring outside people to whom to delegate some of their responsibilities can allow owner-managers to benefit from the enhancement of both their work and family roles (Shelton, 2006). Hence this strategy can allow entrepreneurs to engage in and facilitate activities in all the domains (e.g. family, business, and community roles), thus enhancing those roles. Hiring people also creates job opportunities for others, which has a beneficial social impact. Therefore, through the negotiation and delegation, structural role redefinition coping can effectively reduce role conflict imposed on women entrepreneurs and can lead to positive outcomes.

Prioritize Entrepreneurial Roles: This involves devoting time and cognitive, emotional, and behavioral resources to key entrepreneurial activities, which can lead to business growth (Jennings and McDougald, 2007; Örtqvist et al., 2007). We expect that most women in SSA believe in the segregation of roles by gender. So coping strategies that are congruent with women's roles as defined by society take the upper hand. This is because when women respond to business owner roles rather than to gender-based roles as per the norms of society, they can face various forms of social punishment (Amine and Staub, 2009). Therefore, when the conflict between roles is high and it is difficult to integrate roles or respond to all of them, women are less likely to respond to their entrepreneurial roles. However, prioritizing the entrepreneurial role facilitates venture growth and is negatively related to role conflict (Jennings and McDougald, 2007). But human beings are social by nature, which requires them to have a life outside of business. In the SSA context, where family and social connections are highly valued, focusing on

entrepreneurial roles at the cost of social roles may not bring the sort of non-financial success that motivates self-employment.

Prioritizing Family and Social roles: This strategy focuses on meeting the role demands that women are expected to take up in society (e.g. being 'super mom and wife', while also caring for others in the community). This coping strategy can allow women to meet their socially expected obligations, despite their roles as businesswomen. Women are socialized to be dependent on their society (Day and Living-stone, 2003; Taylor et al., 2000). In addition, due to the poor levels of education, most women in SSA are not sufficiently equipped to challenge the norms requiring that they conform to traditional social role expectations in terms of the division of labor Amine and Staub (2009). Therefore, when the conflict between roles is high and it is difficult for them to integrate the roles, women might choose to prioritize their social roles. This is because prioritizing social roles can allow women entrepreneurs to live up to the standards of their community (Amine and Staub, 2009). However, this strategy comes at the cost of meeting one's entrepreneurial role demands and is thus not a growth-facilitating strategy (Jennings and McDougald, 2007).

Reactive Role Behavior (Type III): This strategy involves responding to all role demands by combining roles and working harder for longer hours. In reacting to all roles, individuals attempt to work on multiple roles equally to reduce their perceived guilt in not responding to role expectations. Women in SSA are socialized to be non-assertive (Della-Giusta and Phillips, 2006). Therefore, we assume that when the conflict between roles is high, women entrepreneurs may try to satisfy all roles. On the other hand, entrepreneurship scholars argue that entrepreneurs put responsibilities related to their business first in order to expand their business (Shelton, 2006). Since women entrepreneurs combine multiple role demands, however, there is a high tendency for them to also respond to non-business owner responsibilities, leaving them less time to complete

important activities for growing a business (Jennings and McDougald, 2007). In addition, excessive role demands can lead to higher levels of work-related strain (Dijkhuizen et al., 2014), which can manifest in attitudes and behaviors that interfere with business growth. This strategy also requires sacrificing personal needs (e.g. less sleep). Therefore, this strategy may not be effective in reducing role conflict and can adversely affect success.

5.3. Empirical study

In this section, hypotheses are developed followed by the discussion of methods of data collection and analysis. Then results are presented.

5.3.1.Hypotheses

Based on the literature study, the influence of role conflict on the choice of coping strategy and the influence of each of the four coping categories on entrepreneurial success can be hypothesized. In this study, the researcher recognize that coping strategies can be functional or dysfunctional, depending on the type of strategy used in response to role conflict. In the model proposed in Figure 1, the strategies for coping with role conflict reflect a woman entrepreneur's response to the role of conflict being experienced. The proposed model presents four basic coping strategies that were validated in chapter four(see.4.3.3) as subsequent to role conflict and antecedents of success: Structural Role Redefinition (Type I), prioritize entrepreneurial roles, prioritize family social role expectations and Reactive role behavior (Type III). Therefore, we hypothesis as

Hypothesis1: Role conflict positively affects structural role redefinition (Type I coping).

Hypothesis 2: Role conflict negatively affects prioritizing entrepreneurial roles.

Hypothesis 3: Role conflict positively affects prioritizing family and social roles.

Hypothesis 4: Role conflict positively affect to reactive role behavior

Hypothesis 4: Structural role redefinition coping strategy positively affect financial success.

Hypothesis 5: Structural role redefinition coping strategy positively affect non-financial success.

Hypothesis 6: Prioritizing entrepreneurial roles positively affect financial success.

Hypothesis 7: Prioritizing entrepreneurial roles negatively affect non-financial success.

Hypothesis 8: Prioritizing family and social roles negatively affect financial success.

Hypothesis 9: Prioritizing family and social roles positively affect non-financial success.

Hypothesis 11: Reactive role behavior negatively affect financial success.

Hypothesis 12: Reactive role behavior negatively affect non-financial success.

5.3.2. Methods

5.3.2.1. Sources

To obtain data with which to evaluate the hypotheses set out above, a sample of full-time women entrepreneurs were asked to fill out a questionnaire pertaining to the conflict they experience with regard to the expectations in their roles as business-owner, as caretaker in the family, and other roles and their typical methods of coping with this conflict. In addition, they were asked to rate their financial and non-financial success in the years 2016 and 2017.

The data were collected at two points in time. Venture profiles and role conflict and coping strategy data were collected from a sample of 500 women entrepreneurs between February and July 2017. Data on entrepreneurial success and venture performance

(turnover, profit, and a number of employees) were collected between August 2017 and October 2017 from 350 participants who had filled out the initial survey.

5.3.2.2.Procedure

The principal investigator created a network of leaders of women's business associations. This gave the researcher the opportunity to participate in workshops, meetings, and trade shows, and that is where most of our respondents were encountered and where the questionnaires were distributed.

Most of the respondents completed and returned the survey questionnaire at the end of the meeting, workshop, or trade show. A few women requested that it be sent to them by email, then filled it out and returned it within two days to two weeks. Some requested that the completed questionnaire be retrieved from their workplace. For the first survey (February 2017 to July 2017), a total of 650 questionnaires were distributed and 500 completed questionnaires were collected. We managed to obtain a response rate of 77% thanks to a combination of the network created through the women's business associations, the face-to-face approach for most questionnaires, and our close follow-up on the non-face-to-face surveys.

On the first survey, participants had been asked whether they would be willing to participate in future studies. Of the 500 participants who filled out the initial survey questionnaire, 390 women entrepreneurs agreed to do so. Like with the initial survey, the researcher took advantage of the different platforms we had managed to become involved in to meet the 390 women entrepreneurs. Additional enumerators were hired and trained who could have better access to the selected women entrepreneurs. Furthermore, participants were called and were sent follow-up emails for the questionnaires that had been sent previously by email. Using all possible strategies at our disposal to increase the

response rate, we collected 350 completed questionnaires in the second survey and reached a response rate of 89 percent.

Of the 350 questionnaires completed in the first and second surveys, 43 were missing a substantial amount of data and thus dropped from the analysis. Another 103 respondents did not respond to the entrepreneurial success and performance questions and were hence dropped from the final analysis.

In the end, 204 questionnaires were left for the final analysis. Participants were asked to indicate: 1) their level of education; 2) age; 3) marital status; 4) sector in which they operated; 5) number of employees; 6) annual sales for 2016 and 2017 (note that this was collected in two different years), and 7) profit for 2016 and 2017 (note that this was collected in two different years). The results are shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Sample Characteristics

Demographic Variable		N (%)
Education	No school	2 (1)
	Primary	51 (25)
	Secondary	75 (37)
	Diploma	59 (29)
	University degree	17 (8.3)
Age	18-25	16 (9)
	26-30	35 (17)
	31-35	107 (53)
	36-45	37 (18)
Marital status	46 and over	9 (4)
	Single	18 (9)
	Married	160 (78)
	Divorced	20 (10)
	Widowed	6 (3)
Sector	Service	108 (53)
	Retail	60 (29)
	Manufacturing	30 (15)
	Other	6 (3)
No. of employee	1-3	126 (62)
	4-5	70 (34)
	6 or more	8(4)
Self-reported annual sales for 2016	$2499 and under	8 (4)
	2500_ 4499	41 (20)

	4500_ 6999	78 (38)
	7000 _ 9999	60 (29)
	$10,000 and over	14 (7)
Self-reported annual sales for 2017	$2499 and under	11 (5.3)
	2500 _ 4499	39 (19)
	4500_ 6999	61 (30)
	7000_ 9999	55 (27)
	$10,000 and over	26 (13)
Self-reported profit for 2016		
	$1799 and under	139 (68)
	1800_ 3499	59 (29)
	3500 _ 5499	3 (1.5)
	$5500 and over	3(1.5)
Self-reported profit for 2017	$1799 and under	136 (67)
	1800 _ 3499	59 (29)
	3500_ 5499	4 (1.9)
	$5500 and over	5 (2.4)

5.3.2.3. Measures

Coping strategies

To measure the strategies used for coping with role conflict, the researcher relied on the four sub-categories outlined in our previous study (see Chapter 4). The first scale, structural role redefinition (Type I), was obtained after the respective factor analysis for the indicator of negotiation, seeking social support and hiring outside support. 'Negotiation' was measured by three items, such as 'I discuss my roles with family members'; 'seeking social support' was measured by four items, such as 'I seek physical and emotional support from friends and neighbors'; 'hiring outside support' was measured by three items along the lines of 'I hire home help'.

Prioritizing entrepreneurial roles was measured by four items, for example 'I choose to respond to my business role'. 'Prioritizing family and social roles were measured by four items, such as 'I choose to behave as per social expectations. Reactive role behavior (Type III) was measured by five items, such as 'I work harder and longer to meet all my role demands'.

The Cronbach's alpha scores for coping scales in this study were .80 for 'negotiation', .79, for 'seeking social support', .70 for 'hiring outside support,'.95 for 'prioritizing entrepreneurial roles', .85 for 'prioritizing family and social roles, .86 for 'Reactive role behavior. Respondents were asked to indicate their responses on a five-point Likert scale (with 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree).

Subjective entrepreneurial success

The present study adopted items from existing subjective entrepreneurial success scales from Dej (2011); Fisher et al. (2014); and Wach et al. (2016). Item selection occurred after a pilot study had been conducted with 50 women entrepreneurs in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The initial success scales contained five to 11 items per success factor, with participants asked to indicate the extent to which they had reached the stated criteria for success. Each answer was measured on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from totally not achieved (1) to totally achieved (5).

The final items for the analysis were selected based on the results of a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). A CFA was also conducted to assess model fit. First, a five-factor model was examined, with firm performance, personal financial rewards, workplace relationships, community impact, and personal fulfillment as factors.

The first scale measured firm performance through seven items, an example being 'increased market share, such as firm expansion'. The second measured personal financial rewards through four items, such as 'capacity to buy'. The third measured workplace relationships through three items, such as 'strong customer relationships. The fourth measured personal fulfillment through four items, such as 'work-life balance'. The fifth measured community impact through seven items, such as 'creating jobs. The Cronbach's alpha scores for success scales in this study were .87 for firm performance, .85 for personal

financial rewards, .75 for workplace relationships, .89 for community impact, and .85 for personal fulfillment.

Table 5.2: Items, Means, Standard Deviations, Factor Loadings, and Cronbach's Alphas Scores for Entrepreneurial Success

Items	Mean	SD	Factor Loading	Alpha
Financial Success				0.89
Venture performance	3.43	0.59	0.825	
Personal financial rewards	3.5	0.64	0.981	
Non-financial Success				0.8
Personal fulfilment	3.44	0.509	0.63	
Community impact	3.48	0.516	0.758	
Workplace relationships	3.47	0.613	0.758	

The two subjective financial scale measures were found to be strongly related to objective financial measures, growth in sales and profit (between 2016 and 2017). Since entrepreneurial success is often divided into two factors (i.e. subjective financial success and subjective personal success) (e.g. Dej, 2011; Dijkhuizen et al., 2016) a two-factor model was then tested. The results indicate that the two-factor model fit data with fit indices of CFI=.994, AGFI=.987, CMIN=1.63, RMSEA=.056, and PCLOSE= .372. As indicated in the table (see appendix), there are no validity concerns. Reliability is achieved when composite reliability (CR) > 0.7 and convergent validity is average variance extracted (AVE) and > 0.5; discriminant validity is achieved when maximum shared variance (MSV) < AVE, average shared variance (ASV) < AVE, and the square root of AVE > inter-construct correlations (Hair et al. 2010). The Cronbach's alpha scores for the subjective financial success scales and non-financial success scales in this study were .89 and .80, respectively.

Role conflict

Role conflict was measured using the Work-Family Conflict Scale developed by Carlson et al. (2000) and the SRE and ERD Conflict Scale from our previous study (see. Chapter 3). The Work-Family Conflict Scale measures six dimensions of work-family conflict using three items for each. Some items were reworded to fit the entrepreneurs' experience in our context. For example, 'My business keeps me from my family activities more than I would like.' The items were measured on a five-point Likert-direction scale, ranging from 'strongly disagree' (1) to 'strongly agree' (5). The Cronbach's alpha scores, in this case, were .83 for the nine items representing WF conflict and .86 for the nine items representing FW conflict.

The SRE and ERD scale measures two dimensions of SRE and ERD conflict: SRE-to-ERD conflict (nine items) and ERD-to-SRE conflict (six items). Items for SRE-to-ERD conflict include 'You cancel your business schedules to socialize'; items for ERD-to-SRE include 'You can't enjoy social events because you think too much about the business'. Each answer was measured on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from (1) for 'strongly agree' to (5) for 'strongly disagree'. The Cronbach's alpha scores were .89 for the nine items representing SRE-to-ERD conflict and .85 for the nine items representing ERD-to-SRE conflict. Since our focus was on the overall level of role conflict, the one-factor model was tested. The results showed that the data fit the model with fit indices of CFI=.993, AGFI=.933, CMIN=2.8, RMSEA=.094, and PCLOSE=.156.

Statistical analysis

We used Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) for the analysis (Lomax and Schumacker, 2012) because it is appropriate for cases with multiple observed variables. It also explicitly takes measurement error into account, which enhances validity and reliability. Moreover, SEM has the ability to analyses complex theoretical models. Role conflict, coping strategy, and subjective success are formed by constructs measured by multiple indicators and SEM

was deemed appropriate for simultaneously testing the measurements and structural relationships between the constructs and indicators (Lomax and Schumacker, 2012). A correlations analysis was conducted before proceeding to the correlation of the study variables using SEM. As indicated in Table 5.3, all the role conflict, coping strategy, and subjective financial and non-financial success variables were significantly correlated. The SEM showed that the indicators were reliable, with model fit indices of $\chi 2$ (393) =754, p=0.000, CFI=0.96, NFI=0.94, and RMSEA=.045.

Table 5.3: Means, Standard Deviations, Alpha Reliability Coefficient, and Correlation Coefficients (N=204)

	M	SD	FP	PFR	WPR	SI	PF	Type I	PER	Type III	PFSR	ERDs-to-SREs conflict	SREs-to-ERDs conflict	WIF	FIW
Financial success															
FP	3.32	0.819													
PFR	3.76	0.736	.665**												
Non-financial success															
WPR	3.8	0.69	.495**	.440**											
SI	3.67	0.626	.467**	.348**	.345**										
PF	3.34	0.751	.320**	.476**	.422**	.561**									
Coping strategies															
Type I	3.21	0.388	.431**	.419**	.617**	.410**	.422**								
PERs	2.22	0.739	.454**	.411*	-.021	-.082	-.052	.194**							
Type III	3.63	0.496	.141*	.151**	.151**	.086	-.103*	-.454**	-.321**						
PFSR	3.16	0.805	-0.182**	-.332**	.034	.125*	.031	-.492**	.430**	-.168**					
Role conflict															
ERDs-to-SREs	2.55	0.654	.135*	-.081	-.181**	-.226**	-.166*	.332**	.165**	-.152*	-.684**				
SREs-to-ERDs	2.83	0.345	-.317**	-.260**	-.537**	-.398**	-.318**	-.181**	.220**	.174**	.561**	-.442**			
WFI	2.75	0.668	.121*	.178*	-.456**	-.401**	-.410**	.446**	.185**	-.118*	-.193*	.291**	-.235**		
FWI	2.7	0.741	-.403**	-.399**	-.771**	-.424**	-.429**	.213**	-.081	.1090*	.338**	.594**	.476**	-.475**	

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

FP: Financial Performance
PFR: Personal Financial Rewards
WPR: Workplace Relation
SI: Social Impact
PF: Personal Fulfillment
PER: Prioritize Entrepreneurial roles
Type I: Structural Role Redefinition
PFSR: Prioritize Family and Social Roles
Type III: Reactive Role Behavior

5.3.3. Results

The maximum likelihood parameter estimates from the SEM analysis, as presented in Table 5.4, show that the four relationships posited in the model between the role conflict and coping strategy variables were statistically significant. As hypothesized in hypothesis 1, 2, 3, and 4, the result reveals that role conflict positively affects structural role redefinition, prioritizing family and social roles and reactive role behavior, whereas negatively affect prioritizing entrepreneurial roles.

As for hypotheses 5 and 6, the statistical analysis confirmed that structural role redefinition (type I coping) positively affects financial and non-financial success. As expected, it was found that prioritizing entrepreneurial roles as a response to role conflict results in positive financial success but in negative non-financial success. Although the effect of prioritizing family and social roles has no significant effect on non-financial success, it affects the financial success negatively. Unexpectedly, the SEM analysis result shows that, reacting to all roles (types III) coping in response to role conflict affect both financial and non-financial success positively.

Table 5.4: SEM Analysis Results: Parameter Estimates and Significance

Relationships			Beta Estimate	P
Structural redefinition	<-	Role Conflict	0.237	***
Prioritize entrepreneurial role	<-	Role Conflict	-.183	0.014
Prioritize Family and Social roles	<-	Role Conflict	0.432	***
Reactive role behavior	<-	Role Conflict	0.3898	***
Subjective Non-financial	<-	Structural redefinition	0.436	***
Subjective Financial	<-	Structural redefinition	0.534	***
Subjective Non-financial	<-	Prioritize Entrepreneurial role	-0.262	***
Subjective Financial	<-	Prioritize Entrepreneurial role	0.332	***
Subjective Non-financial	<-	Prioritize Family and Social Roles	0.082	0.087
Subjective Financial	<-	Prioritize Family and Social Roles	-0.162	0.02
Subjective Non-financial	<-	Reactive role behavior	0.252	***
Subjective- Financial	<-	Reactive role behavior	0.192	0.002

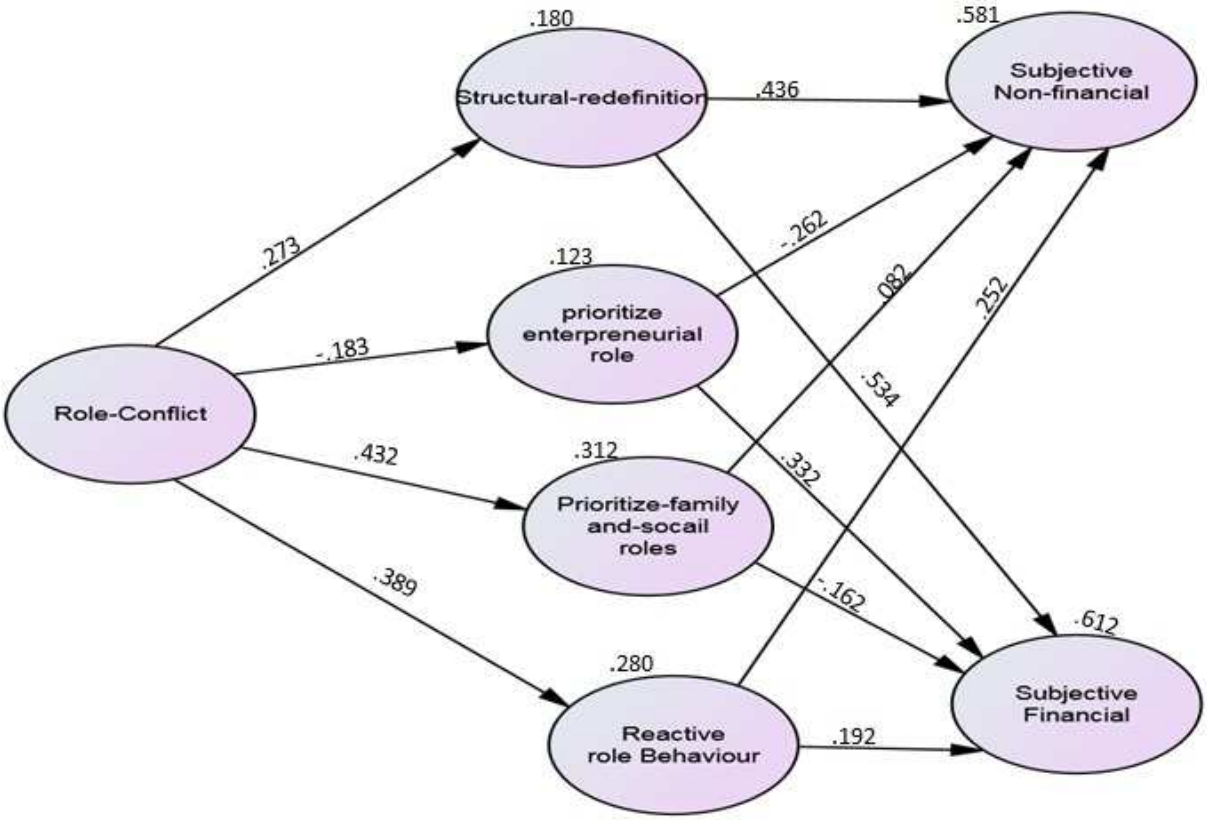


Figure 5.2: Structural Equation Model of Role Conflict, Coping Strategies, and Entrepreneurial Success.

5.4. Concluding remarks

The first research question in this chapter was: 'how does the level of role conflict influence strategies that female entrepreneurs use to cope?' In summarizing, according to the evidence from Ethiopia, when female entrepreneurs experience a higher level of role conflict, they respond by either involving others (Type I coping) and/or reacting to all roles (type III coping).

They also cope by being prioritizing family and social roles. One of the main explanations is related to the argument of Jennings and McDougald (2007) that female business owners respond primarily to role conflict by addressing all their roles; in the process, however, they are responding to their non-business roles. Our results also showed that women respond to lower levels of conflict by prioritizing entrepreneurial roles. This may be because when the degree of conflict is low, women business owners can choose among the coping strategies that can enhance business growth. With lower levels of conflict, women may also balance multiple roles and focus on their role as a business owner. Moreover, low-level conflicts might be relatively seen as positive by business owners (Baron, 2008).

The second research question was: 'how do strategies that female entrepreneurs use to cope with the role conflict influence entrepreneurial success? 'The SEM analysis results show that female entrepreneurs who uses structural role redefinition that involve negotiation and delegation, as ways of coping with role conflict report positive financial and non-financial success.

One possible explanation for this is that coping strategy that is based on structural role redefinition are positively related to venture performance. In addition, when owner-managers delegate their roles, they relieve some duties and able to focus on higher matters in business, at home, and in their community, that can lead to positive outcomes.

Moreover, the result shows that reactive role behavior positively affects both financial and non-financial success.

Previous studies examined performance or success in terms of business growth and profitability (i.e., financial success only). In this chapter, success was defined a multidimensional contract, which can be classified as financial or non-financial. Accordingly, we found that if women entrepreneurs prioritize family and social roles due to the role conflict, it affects non-financial success (e.g. social recognition) positively; but negatively affect financial success (e.g. profit).

The results reported in this chapter are not without limitations. The model was tested in the Addis Ababa region of Ethiopia. Future studies need to consider data collected from other SSA countries, in order to obtain a holistic understanding of the role conflict, coping strategies, and success of women business owners in the region. Vital comparisons could be made by conducting similar studies in other developing countries. Moreover, the study was limited to a cross-sectional analysis and longitudinal research might be needed for outlining causal and bi-directional relationships.

Chapter 6: Summary, Findings, Conclusions and Recommendations

6.1 Summary

Women entrepreneurship may have particularly beneficial impacts on development (Langevang et al., 2015; Minniti, 2010). The social and economic mobility that entrepreneurship affords women can be an instrument to decrease gender inequality, improve economic efficiency, grow small and medium enterprises and promote the well-being of children (Estrin and Mickiewicz, 2011; Minniti and Naude, 2010; Singh and Belwal, 2008; Zahra, 2013).

Across the world, women are entering entrepreneurship at an increasing rate. According to the global entrepreneurship monitor (GEM) report, in the year 2016, an estimated 163 million new start-ups and 111 million already established businesses were run by women in 74 countries around the world (Kelley et al., 2017). Flexibility at work is one of the major reasons for women to be involved in entrepreneurship (DeMartino and Barbato, 2003; McGowan et al., 2012; Patterson and Mavin, 2009).

Female entrepreneurs often face a conflict when allocating time and resources between the various roles that are expected of them. This is a potential obstacle to their success as entrepreneurs. Therefore, women entrepreneurs need strategies to cope with such role conflict. Such strategies are however still neglected in female entrepreneurship research (Jennings and Brush, 2013; Jennings and McDougald, 2007; Shelton, 2006). This is especially so in the literature on female entrepreneurship in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). Accordingly, the purpose of this dissertation was to shed light on the various issues related to role conflict, coping strategies and the success of female entrepreneurs in SSA. It did so by conducting four studies to answer the main research question :

How do experienced role conflict and coping strategies influence the success of women entrepreneurs SSA context?

As well as five secondary research questions:

- *How do female entrepreneurs experience and cope with role conflict in the SSA context?*
- *How does the choice of coping strategies differ for different stages of a business?*
- *How do woman entrepreneur's personal resources moderate the relationship between the stage of business and the strategies they use for coping with role conflict?*
- *How does the level of role conflict influence strategies that female entrepreneurs use to cope?*
- *How do strategies that female entrepreneurs use to cope with the role conflict influence entrepreneurial success?*

Chapter two presented a qualitative study to explore in general role conflict and the coping strategies of women entrepreneurs in SSA. Data was collected from female business owners in the textile sector of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. This chapter confirmed that gender stereotypic social role expectations is indeed a source of role conflict, and that role conflict and coping strategies varies across business stages and depends on the personal resources of the entrepreneur.

Subsequently, in chapter three quantitative methods were used to measure conflict between social role expectations and entrepreneurial role demands. Items to present role conflict on a scale were constructed based on a literature review and a case study. The content adequacy, factor structure, reliability, and dimensionality of the scales were examined using data collected from 408 women entrepreneurs in Ethiopia. In

addition, the criterion validity of the scale items in relation to entrepreneurial success was examined using data from 307 women entrepreneurs.

In chapter four, quantitative methods were used to examine how coping strategies differed across various stages of business, and how personal resources affects these strategies. A survey of 307 women business owners in Ethiopia was complimented by 20 in-depth interviews of these entrepreneurs. A multivariate analysis of variance was conducted to examine coping strategies across stages of business. In addition, Structural Equation Modeling for Moderation was used to analysis the moderating effect of personal resources.

Finally, in chapter five Structural Equation Modelling was used to examine the relationship between role conflict, coping strategies and entrepreneurial success.

In the reminder of this chapter, the answers from this study on the various secondary research questions and the overall research question will be set out, after which recommendations are made for policy and future research.

6.2 Findings and conclusions

Secondary research question 1: How do female entrepreneurs experience and cope with role conflict in SSA context?

The findings indicate that female business owners in SSA experience role conflicts that arise from family roles, business owner's role, and the gender stereotypic social role expectations. Although the empirical evidence confirms the findings from the literature that the role incompatibility between work and family creates role conflict, the interface between gender stereotypic social role expectations and entrepreneurial role demands were identified as the primary source of role conflict. This may be attributed to the patriarchal systems and culture that puts various restrictions on women in SSA (Mersha et al., 2010). As a result, failure to meet social role expectations can result in social

punishment (Rehman and Roomi, 2012). This thesis therefore concludes that sources of role conflict should not be limited to those stemming from family and work but should also include other social role expectations such as communal or expected feminine qualities.

Secondary research question 2:What are the items for measuring the role conflict between Social Role Expectations (SRE) and Entrepreneurial Role Demands (ERD)?

Social role expectations as a source of role conflict were empirically tested by developing scale measures that capture the conflict between social role expectations and entrepreneurial role demands. Fifteen items with two subscales measuring two dimensions of SRE and ERD conflict: SRE-to-ERD conflict (9 items) and ERD-to-SRE (6 items) conflict were developed: SRE-to-ERD conflict (9 items) and ERD-to-SRE (6 items). The results show that the scales adequately captured two dimensions of SRE and ERD conflict. The SRE-to-ERD-conflict scale proved to be reliable and valid in relation to the five dimensions of entrepreneurial success. The results confirmed that on top of the standard work and family conflict measures, women entrepreneurs in SSA experience role conflict between SREs and ERDs, which could influence their entrepreneurial success.

Secondary research question 3: How does the choice of coping strategy differ for different stages of a business?

Women entrepreneurs in SSA context were found to use different types of coping strategies, which can be categorized as structural role redefinition, reactive behavior and prioritizing between roles (prioritize entrepreneurial roles vs prioritize family and social roles). The extent to which the women entrepreneurs employ each coping strategy depends on stage of business development, the level of the role conflict, and personal resources.

Considering the stage of business development, established business owners more often than early-stage business owners use structural role redefinition, that is negotiating with role senders and/ or delegate. This could be because established business owners have built better social networks, which can help them to access better social support to delegate and/negotiate (Wasdani and Mathew, 2014). Delegation, communication, and negotiation with key stakeholders are also important features of well-established business (Wasdani and Mathew, 2014). The differences were also observed in terms of prioritization of roles. For example, when entrepreneurs needed to choose between roles, nascent and new business owners more often prioritized family and social role, whereas established business owners prioritized entrepreneurial roles. This may be attributed to the less strong psychological "contract" between the entrepreneur and her venture at an early stage (DeTienne,2010) and to the social role expectations in SSA that prioritizes the family commitment of "good women" (Thobejane and Khoza, 2014). Moreover, as was identified in chapter 2, conforming to social role expectations is more important at an early stage of a business, when the women have not yet proven that they can be successful as entrepreneur.

In general, this result reveals that reactive role behavior/working harder is the dominant type of coping, whereas prioritizing entrepreneurial roles is the least preferred among women entrepreneurs in the sample. The importance of reactive role behavior in SSA may be because of the difficulty in drawing boundaries between roles as argued by Shaffer et al. (2011). Despite their roles outside the home, household responsibilities are generally reserved for women in SSA, compelling women entrepreneurs to assume multiple simultaneous roles (Adisa et al. 2016; Adisa, Mordi, and Mordi (2014). In addition, compared to men, women entrepreneurs have to separate their business activities from other parts of their life (Jennings and Brush,2013). The social sanctions, which are imposed on women when they behave contrary to stereotypical ways, compels

the women entrepreneurs in this study to place less priority on their entrepreneurial roles (Heilman and Okimoto, 2007).

Secondary research question 4: How do a woman entrepreneur's personal resources moderate the relationship between the stage of business and the strategies they use for coping with role conflict?

The result shows that the differences between nascent, new and established business owners in how they cope with role conflict are smaller if they have sufficient personal resources. Women entrepreneurs with a high level of personal resources focus on structural role redefinition (type I coping). The reason for this could be that individuals with higher levels of personal resources tend to be confident and motivated to negotiate with role senders and to delegate their roles to others (Luthans et al., 2006; Mäkikangas and Kinnunen, 2003; Xan-thopoulou et al., 2007). In addition, when women entrepreneurs with abundant personal resources needed to change the priorities between roles, they less likely respond to family and social roles and more strongly to entrepreneurial roles. This can be explained by Mäkikangas and Kinnunen (2003)'s finding that at the opposite end of the spectrum individuals with low personal resources base their actions on social expectations. Similarly, Juhdi, Hamid, Rizal, and Juhdi (2015) found that personal resources positively related to entrepreneurial work engagement. Furthermore, personal resources such as self-efficacy of the individual promote behaviors that are associated with the entrepreneurial domain for example 'risk-taking', 'innovation', and achievement orientation (Wasdani and Mathew, 2014).

Secondary research question 5: How does the level of role conflict influence strategies that female entrepreneurs use to cope?

With more role conflict, women entrepreneurs tend to revert by involving others such as through negotiation with role senders to modify expectations and delegate by seeking social support and by hiring. One explanation for these strategies could be meeting all role expectations under a high level of role conflict might be perceived as individually unattainable, and the women entrepreneurs therefore choose to involve other individuals in their coping strategy. They also cope by reacting to all roles and/or prioritizing family and social roles. This may be explained by Jennings and McDougald (2007), who found that that female business owners respond primarily to role conflict by addressing all their roles; in the process, however, they are responding to their non-business roles. The results of this study showed that women respond to lower levels of conflict by prioritizing entrepreneurial roles. This may be because when the degree of conflict is low, women business owners can choose coping strategies that can enhance business growth. Moreover, low-level conflicts are relatively seen as positive , women can balance multiple roles and focus on their role as a business owner (e.g. Baron, 2008).

Secondary research question 6: How do strategies that female entrepreneurs use to cope with the role conflict influence entrepreneurial success?

Strategies that female entrepreneurs use to cope with role conflict were found to be affecting their success in business. Thus, strategies that focus on reducing the role of conflict through negotiation and delegation positively affect financial and non-financial success. Others have argued already that coping strategies that are based on structural role redefinition are positively related to venture performance (e.g. Jennings and McDougald, 2007; Örtqvist et al., 2007; Shelton, 2006).

When owner-managers delegate their roles, they relieve some duties that enable them to focus on other matters in business, at home, and in their community, that can lead to positive outcomes. Coping strategies, which involve working harder to meet all role

demands, also positively affect both financial and non-financial success. Örtqvist et al. (2007) found that reacting to all roles and expectation by working harder and longer positively affecting venture performance. These previous studies, however, focus on financial success: growth and profitability. In this thesis, the multidimensionality of success was considered, in other words both financial and non-financial measures of success (Dijkhuizen, et al., 2016, Dej 2010). It was found that when women entrepreneurs prioritize family and social roles due to the role conflict, it affects non-financial success (e.g. social recognition) positively but negatively affects financial success (e.g. profit). For example, Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2007) found that a coping strategy that enables women to maintain their primary traditional obligation despite its effect on their role as employee is valued positively by the women. On the other hand, when they prioritize entrepreneurial roles as a way of coping, it affects financial success positively, but affect non-financial success negatively. Jennings and McDougald (2007) also proposed prioritizing business role as a business growth facilitating coping strategy.

Overall, the findings from chapters two to five provide an answer to the main research question of this thesis. First, female entrepreneurs in SSA experience role conflict in balancing social role expectations and entrepreneurial role demands. They cope with the role conflicts in various ways, which depend on the level of role conflict, stage of business where they are active and personal resources available. In general, reactive role behavior/ working harder to meet all role demands is the prevailing type of coping, followed by structural role redefinition involving negotiation, delegation by seeking social support and hiring outside support.

The choice of a particular coping strategy depends on the level of personal resources. Women with a high level of personal resources often focus on coping strategies that involve others through negotiation and delegation, work harder and prioritizing entrepreneurial roles.

This thesis has limitations which call for further research. Role conflict theory was applied; the focus thus tends to be on the negative aspects of the role pressures from family, work, and social expectations, rather than the complementarity of these domains. To address this problem, the interpreted data was shared with some of the respondents; external researchers were invited in to prop up the researchers' thinking on the research process, and the coding was performed independently by individuals. All these actions might not have fully overcome the limitations of the researcher's bias, but they did possibly reduce them. Therefore, the facilitation sides of role interface, especially among female entrepreneurs in the SSA context, need to be further explored. This opposite view, 'role facilitation', can provide new insight into female entrepreneurship literature.

Concerning the empirical studies, the first limitation is that the samples incorporated are educated and urban women entrepreneurs who are involved in growth-oriented businesses. These women might not reflect the experience of less-educated, rural and or survivalist women entrepreneurs. Hence, this calls for research with other samples. The other limitation is that a sub-sample of the respondents used to measure SRE and ERD conflict was also used for the criterion validity measures, whereas a different sample would have been a better choice for validity. To minimize these limitations, different SSA countries were considered in determining the scope and constructing the scales. However, the scales were tested in a single country, Ethiopia. Hence, future research is needed to test and analyses the SRE and ERD conflict scale in other countries with women entrepreneurs in different settings. This can confirm the generalizability of our findings with regard to the reliability and validity of the scale and its cross-cultural stability.

Yet another limitation is that the data for constructs such as role conflict, personal resources, coping strategies, and entrepreneurial success was exclusively based on self-report measures. This might result in common method bias problems (Podsakoff, et al., 2003). To minimize the problems, we obtained measures of the constructs at two points

in time, we used a cover story was to create a psychological separation and conducted multicollinearity test. To further avoid common method bias in the future, researchers need to collect measures of these constructs from different sources. For instance, consider collecting data from the entrepreneurs' spouse, employees, customers, and friends, to examine the relationship between role conflict, coping strategies and success.

Finally, the studies are cross-sectional, which limits conclusions to draw causal relationships among the studied variables. Thus, to provide insights into causality, future research should replicate the present study with a more representative sample using longitudinal designs.

Despite these limitations and avenues for future research, the thesis provided some key recommendations for policy, practice and future research on role conflict, coping strategies and female entrepreneurship.

6.3 Recommendations

6.3.1 Recommendations for policy and practice

Interest in female entrepreneurship is increasing. There are important policy and practical implications to be derived from the findings of this thesis.

There is a need to identify the sources, types, and intensity of the role conflicts at each stage of business, before any intervention that promotes female entrepreneurship can take place. This is important as the findings presented in this thesis suggest that interventions should start with the sources and types of role conflict that would have a greater impact on the role conflicts experienced by the women entrepreneurs. In cases of a shortage of resources, such interventions could then start with the contexts that would have the greatest impact on the role conflicts. For example, gender-stereotypic social role expectations were identified as the primary source of role conflict in this thesis. Therefore, programs that aim to address women's economic empowerment through enterprise

development in developing countries, need to trace the potential effect of social role expectations. That is, if women entrepreneurs are enabled to address social role expectations themselves, they have a better chance of surviving and growing their business. In this line, the thesis shows that women entrepreneurs with abundant personal resources (optimistic, self-efficacy, and resilient) focus more on their entrepreneurial role and less on social role expectations. Therefore, the policy recommendation is also to promote and strengthen personal resources of women in SSA and not focus solely on typical business development services.

The findings presented here also show that communication and negotiation to modify expectation and delegate roles as coping strategies positively affect both financial and non-financial success. Therefore, an intervention that develops communication skills of women entrepreneurs can help them to use effective communication tactics to negotiate over the role expectations with family, friends, community, clients and other stakeholders. For example, if women entrepreneurs effectively explain and negotiate why they can't fully meet the role expectations and/or delegate some of these expectations whenever possible, they can balance their roles, which can positively affect their success. In addition, social skills could help female business owners, specifically in the SSA context, navigate the complex dynamics of their interconnected family and social relationships and improve the profitability of their businesses.

Women who react to all role demands through working hard also reported positive financial and non-financial success. Such coping strategy, however, may affect the well-being of women entrepreneurs by leaving them no time to take care of themselves. Therefore, time management skills can help female entrepreneurs to analyze their roles at home, work-place, and community, assign priorities, keep the focus on the most important and sensitive tasks and limit the time invested in less important activities.

6.3.2 Recommendations for research

The thesis has several implications to role conflict, coping strategies, and female entrepreneurship literature.

First, it contributed to the relatively small literature on female entrepreneurship, role conflict and coping and success in SSA. The thesis confirmed that female entrepreneurs in SSA are enmeshed in a range of complex roles and social role expectations, challenges and the use of different coping strategies, which in turn affect their success in entrepreneurial activities.

Second, this thesis contributes to the role conflict literature by introducing and testing the conflict between gender stereotypic social role expectations and entrepreneurial role demand. New scales to measure this role conflict were developed and validated. The scale items have both theoretical and practical importance. Accordingly, the thesis extended the existing literature on the work-family conflict in female entrepreneurship research. The result signaled that women entrepreneurs can experience role conflict that arises from the gender stereotypic social role expectations and entrepreneurial role demands which often described as muscular characteristics. This is mainly imperative for patriarchal society in SSA whereby women having lesser social rights to access and control resources and involving in decision-making (Matondi 2013), and failure to act as per the social role expectation can further weaken their social right and access to resources. The literature on role conflict should, therefore, incorporate social role expectation and entrepreneurial role demands to the work-and-family-conflict scale items, specifically for women entrepreneurs in SSA context.

Hall's (1972) topologies were modified in a way to enable effectively capturing coping strategies of women entrepreneurs in developing countries across the stage of business and its effectiveness in relation to success. Hall (1972) developed three types of coping strategies: structural role redefinition, personal role redefinition, and reactive role

behavior. These topologies were modified based on the finding from the case study from Ethiopia. For example, under the personal role redefinition, individual prioritizes between roles. However, individual can't prioritize roles in two or more domains simultaneously. Hall topologies also do not provide an option to examine what roles, when, and how individual prioritize between roles. Hence, the finding in this thesis provides such options for future research, whereby women entrepreneurs prioritize either family and social role or entrepreneurial role depending on the stage of their business and personal resources available to them, which in turn result to differ success outcomes.

Moreover, coping strategies were linked with the stage approach to business growth. The result shows that the choice of coping strategy is affected by stage of business where the female entrepreneurs are active. The implication for the coping literature is that coping strategy is a dynamic process, and it should not be treated as static. To the entrepreneurship literature, it contributes to the ongoing debate on the stage approach to business development (Levie and Lichtenstein, 2010) by showing the challenge related to role conflict and coping strategies varies at a different stage of business development. For example, stage approach to business development scholars argue that entrepreneurs face different challenges at different stages of development (Gruber,2002). In addition, entrepreneurship is a dynamic process that affects entrepreneurial behavior and activities (Wasdani and Mathew,2014).

Furthermore, in this thesis coping effectiveness was examined in relation to entrepreneurial success. In such as the way it contributes to the literature of coping startgies (e.g. Drnovsek et al., 2010; Örtqvist et al., 2007; Shelton, 2006), by adding another indicator for coping effectiveness to the already existing indicators such as well-being and balancing work and life roles.

Finally, the thesis contributes to the literature by adding another success factor in female entrepreneurship (i.e. coping strategies) to those previously identified by scholars

(e.g. Lee and Stearns, 2012; Ramadani et al., 2013) using different, and more appropriate, measures of success. In addition, a two-dimensional definition of success that includes multiple subjective financial and non-financial indicators was considered. Accordingly, in this thesis, the knowledge of subjective entrepreneurial success was extended by examining the multidimensional construct.

Appendix A: References

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Appendix B: Interview Guide and Questionnaires

B.1 Individual Interview

no.	Questions	Prompt	Reasons for question
1	What is your name/age/educational background/ family status/ family structure		Rapport
	When did you start your company? What was the reason for you to start your own company?		
2	please tell me how you start the business	Were you employee before? What was your profession? \ How many years did you work in a paid job? Have you ever quit the business and re-started? When? Why? How? Do you think that being an entrepreneur is different for a man or woman? What is the main difference for you of being employed or being an entrepreneur?	Career history
3	Please describe your routine on a normal working day	How many hours a day do you spend on your work? How is that divided on a day? Are you every day and the whole day in your 'office' or do you travel? How much of your time? How do you travel between your home and the company? How much time does this travel take? How do you feel about your daily routine? Your day is 24 hours, how that is divided between work, travelling time, household duties,	Workday routine

		childcare, and relaxation	
4	Please describe your routine on a normal weekend?	Do you work for the company on weekend? Why? How? How do you feel about the weekend routine?	Weekend routine
5	Do you feel that your role as an entrepreneur? Impact your family?	No à why not? Do you have any third parties supporting you (e.g. nanny, family)? In which activities do they support you? Yes, How? Can you please give examples?	Perceived. work-to-family conflict
6	Do you feel the roles in your family impact your business?	No, Is this because . . . might. have given your insight. ? Yes, How? Can you give an example	Family to work conflict
7	Please describe your involvement in social and professional networks	Are you actively involved in any religious groups? How? What is the value for you – as a person and as an entrepreneur? Do have membership in any business associations? your role? What is the value for you of this network? Do you socialize with your family? Do you socialize with your friends? Do you socialize with your community members? Per question: how? How often? What is the value for you of this network?	Involvement in social networks

8	Which social networks we just mentioned the impact your business most? Which impact your business least? Can you tell us experiences of other business women you know on this issue and how they cope with it?	Why? How? Can you give example?	social networks to work conflict
9	How do you manage your role within family members, as a business owner and other social role expectations	How do you currently deal with role pressure arise from family, business and social expectations? Do your current coping styles are different from previous years; such when you started the business? How? Why? Can you give example? Do you think that your coping styles have changed from the time you started your business, after 3/5 years and now? Why? What do you anticipate your future coping style? Why?	Coping strategies

B.2 Survey Questionnaire

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

My name is Mulu Berhanu; I am a Ph.D. candidate at Tilburg University, The Netherlands. My study is about coping with role conflict, coping strategies and entrepreneurial success among women entrepreneurs. You are selected to involve in the study because you are a woman entrepreneur. I would be grateful if you could spare the time to take part in the survey; it should only take around 60 to 90 minutes to complete.

The survey is part of an important academic research project. By completing it, you will be making a significant contribution to the knowledge about women entrepreneurs' role conflict, coping strategies and success. Besides, you will contribute to the design of interventions that can better fit with roles, responsibilities, and demands of women entrepreneurs.

However, your participation in this survey is voluntary; and you have the right to withdraw at any time in case you want to do so. Any answer you give will be treated in complete confidence; it will be used exclusively for research purpose. All surveys will be coded then the originals will be destroyed. No identifying information will be used, and all data will be combined for analysis.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Kind regards,

Mulu Berhanu (Researcher)

B.2.1 QUESTIONNAIRE

How to Complete the Questionnaire For the questions in part one and two put a circle around the appropriate numerical number or provide your own answers where ever it requires. From part five to eight, put "X" mark corresponding the appropriate number you choose.

Part one: Demographic Questions

1. Which one is your age category?

A.18-25 years

B. 26-30 years

C. 31- 35years

D. above 46 years

2. On average, how many hours per week do you spend working for the business?
3. Hours per week: – ————————
4. Which of the following income groups bands best describes for your family?

A. High income

B. Medium income

C. Low income

4. At present, how many dependents (under the age of 18, sick person) do you have living at home with you?

5. Educational Background

Level	
No school	
Primary	
Secondary	
Diploma	
Degree and above	

6. In which of the following your annual sale fall

A. Bellow 49999ET B

B. 50, 000_89,999ET B

C. 90, 000-139,999ET B

D. 140, 000-189,999ET B

E. 190, 000-200, 000ET B

F. 200,000ETB and above

7. In which of the following your annual profit fall

A, Below35,999 ETB

B,36,000 -69,999 ETB

C,70,000-109,999 ETB

D, 110,000 and above

B.2.2. Part Three: Role Conflict

Please rate how often the following happen to you for the past year. 1=Never,2=Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Most of the Time, 5= Always). Put "X" under the number you choose.

No.	Items	1	2	3	4	5	
	SRE-to-ERD Conflict						
1	You cancel your business schedules to socialize.						
2	You're afraid to talk about your business and yourself (promote yourself)						
3	You can't expand the business because of your social obligations.						
4	As a woman in business, you're afraid of being labeled a "bad woman."						
5	You feel guilty doing business because you can't visit people (extended family).						
6	You can't behave like a businessperson because of religious obligations.						
7	You're afraid to compete in matters important to your business.						
8	You can't expand your business because you have to share the income with relatives.						

9	You're not proud of doing business because people do not value women in business.						
	ERD-to- SRE Conflict	1	2	3	4	5	
1	You can't fulfill religious obligations because of your business obligations.						
2	You can't live up to the expected behavior because you are on the lookout for opportunities.						
3	You can't enjoy social events because you think too much about business.						
4	You can't share your income with relatives because you want to expand the business.						
5	You don't have time to socialize because your business keeps you busy.						
6	You can't abide by the norms because you like to do things differently.						
7	You can't abide by the norms because you are assertive						

8	You can't abide by the norms because you talk about your business during social events						
9	You can't abide by the norms because you promote yourself to attract business networks						
	Work interface home	1	2	3	4	5	
1	My business keeps me from my family activities more than I would like						
2	The time I must devote to my business keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities						
3	I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities						
4	When I get home from work, I am often too frazzled to participate in family activities/ responsibilities.						
5	I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family						

6	Due to all the business pressures, sometimes when I come home, I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy						
7	The problem-solving behaviors I use in business are not effective in resolving problems at home						
	Behavior that is effective and necessary for me to do business would be counterproductive at home						
	The behaviors I perform that make me effective to do business do not help me to be a better parent and spouse						
	Family, interference with work	1	2	3	4	5	
1	Due to stress at home, I am often preoccupied with family matters at work						
2	Because I am often stressed from family responsibilities, I have a hard time concentrating on my work						
3	Tension and anxiety from my family life often weaken my ability to do my job.						

4	The time I spend on family responsibilities often interfere with my work responsibilities						
5	The time I spend with my family often causes me not to spend time on activities at work that could be helpful to my career						
6	I have to miss work activities due to the amount of time I must spend on family responsibilities						
7	The behaviors that work for me at home do not seem to be effective at work						
8	Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at home would be counterproductive at work.						
9	The problem-solving behavior that works for me at home does not seem to be as useful at work.						

B.2.3. Part Four: Coping Strategies

When the challenges that I rated above happen to me in the past one year, I have: (1=Never; Rarely=2; Sometimes=3; Most of the Time=4; Always=5). Put X under the number you choose

Items		1	2	3	4	5
	Pleasing All					
1	Worked harder and longer than usual to meet all roles demands					
2	Planned, scheduled, and devoted more time					
3	I respond to business-related issues when I am at home					
4	I respond to family-related issues when I am at work					
5	I socialize when I am in my business owner role					
	Prioritize Entrepreneurial Role	1	2	3	4	5
1	I am physically and psychologically disconnected from my home when I am at work					
2	I choose to respond to my business role					
3	I do not bother myself about social issues					
4	I choose to behave like a business person in all situations					
	Priortize family and Social Role	2	2	3	4	5

1	I am physically and psychologically disconnected from my work when I am at home					
2	I put my family first					
3	I choose to socialize when the need arises					
4	I choose to behave as per the social expectations					
	Negotiation	1	2	3	4	5
1	I discuss my roles with my family members to redefine role expectations					
2	I negotiate with people in my business networks (clients, suppliers, and colleagues) to redefine role expectations					
3	I negotiate with people in my social networks (friends, neighbors, and extended family) to redefine role expectations					
	Seek Social Support	1	2	3	4	5
1	I receive physical and emotional support from my spouse					
2	Chores are divided among family members					
3	I receive physical and emotional support from extended family(mother, aunt, other relatives)					

4	I receive physical and emotional support from friends and neighbors					
	Hire Outside Support	1	2	3	4	5
1	I hire home help					
2	I hire and delegate business roles (for example, train an					
	employee to manage venture)					
3	I delegate community roles (for example, hire a day worker for community work)					

B.2.4. Part Five: Personal Resources

Answer the questions below by applying to yourself using the following choices. Be as honest as possible in vouching to the questionnaire without leaving your answer to a question influences your answers. There are no right or wrong answers. (1= Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4= Agree,5=Strongly Agree). Put " X" under the number you choose.

optimism		1	2	3	4	5
1	In times of uncertainty, I am expecting the best					
2	If there are chances that it goes bad for me, will go wrong(negative).					
3	I am still optimistic in my future.					
4	I expect things go on my way.					
5	Most of the time, I expect that good thing happen to me.					
6	Overall, I expect more good things happen to me than bad.					
Resilience		1	2	3	4	5
1	I tend to bounce back quickly after hard times					
2	I have the ability to make through stressful events					
3	It does not take me long to recover from a stressful event					
4	I can snap back when something bad happens					
5	I usually come through difficult times with little trouble					

6	I tend to take a short time to get over set-backs in my life					
self-efficacy		1	2	3	4	5
1	I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.					
2	When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.					
3	In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.					
4	I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind.					
5	I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.					
6	I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.					
7	Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.					
8	Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.					

B.2.5. Part Six: Subjective Entrepreneurial success

1. Please indicate to what extent you have reached the stated criteria for success in the last year 1= totally not achieved;5= totally achieved. Put X under the number you choose

Firm performance		1	2	3	4	5
1	Firm profitability (e.g. high returns)					
2	Turnover/sales					
3	Increased market share (e.g. firm expansion)					
4	Innovation, the introduction of new products, services or production methods					
5	Good quality of products and services (best in your industry); being better compared with competitors					
6	Good solvency (business is possibly sold at a profit)					
7	Growth in the number of employees					
work place relationships		1	2	3	4	5
1	Strong customer relationship (e.g. positive firm image, positive attitude of your clients towards your business)					
2	Employee satisfaction					
3	Supportive firm culture (e.g. firm values and positive attitudes)					
Personal fulfillment		1	2	3	4	5
1	Work-life balance (e.g. free time; Time for yourself)					
2	Personal work flexibility					
3	Own decision-making					
2	Personal relationships and maintain networks					
3	Good health supplies, both mentally and physically					
4	Intellectual concern activities (e.g.. To acquire new knowledge)					

6	Decision Freedom for yourself (his own boss, autonomy and freedom to make their own decisions)					
7	Own vision is propagated					
8	Further develop yourself personally					
9	Professional recognition (e.g. Prestige and respect among peers)					
social impact		**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1	Creating jobs					
2	Social responsibility towards employees					
3	Social contribution, participation in public activities					
4	Contribution to the improvement of the environment (e.g. recycle)					
5	Social recognition (e.g. Public interest, prestige, reputation)					
6	Professional recognition (e.g. Prestige and respect among peers)					
personal financial rewards		**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1	Personal financial security					
2	Ability to afford					
3	High income for your family					

Thank you for your cooperation

Again, we would like to assure that the information you provided will be treated with the utmost confidentiality and that no identifying data will be used at any stage or in any form. Your time and contribution to this study and to the success of future women entrepreneurs in Ethiopia are greatly appreciated.